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DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF CHRONIC AQUATIC TESTS OF TOXICITY

Final Report

By

Paul I. Feder Department of Statistics, The Ohio State University and Applied Statistics Group, Battelle Columbus Laboratories

William J. Collins Department of Entomology, The Ohio State University

(15 September 1979 - 31 October 1980)

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The present investigation considers aspects of the planning of, reporting results from, and the statistical analysis of data arising from chronic aquatic tests of toxicity with fathead minnows. The discussion emphasizes analyses and data displays for the interpretation of qualitative mortality and abnormality data and quantitative weight data.

The report consists of nineteen sections. Section I-IV describe the literature search, argue for and present a set of standardized data reporting

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formats, and contain some suggestions for further improving and standardizing the test procedure. Section V briefly describes the early life stage testing procedure and the resulting data. Sections VI-XIX discuss various topics pertaining to the statistical analysis of such data and to statistical aspects in the design of toxicity tests. Techniques discussed include preliminary graphical displays, tests for homogeneity among tanks within treatment groups, adjustments to account for tank to tank heterogeneity within groups, outlier detection procedures, overall tests for treatment effects, multiple comparisons and pairwise confidence intervals of treatment groups with the control group, analysis of variance, regression analysis and parametric and nonparametric dose response curve fits along with associated estimates of "safe concentrations". All suggested procedures are illustrated with real examples based on aquatic toxicity data. Several newly developed, specialized computer programs are described to carry out nonstandard analyses.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Purpose

During the past several decades problems of environmental contamination have become increasingly important both from the scientific and the legal standpoints. In recent years a great deal of attention has been directed to the potential toxicity to aquatic organisms of chemicals discharged into water bodies.

The U.S. Army, through activities such as munitions manufacturing, operates a number of plants that produce, consume, or discharge a variety of chemical substances. Some of these discharges enter bodies of water inhabited by various aquatic species. Thus the Army must provide the USEPA with safety data concerning the levels of such discharges and the possible extent of resulting surface water and ecological contamination. In order to develop such data the Army conducts both intramural and extramural programs of aquatic toxicity testing.

Considerable amounts of time, money, and manpower are expended by the Army in such aquatic toxicity testing programs. To make these programs more efficient and more effective, the need has been felt for a reexamination of some of the standard methods used. This has been especially true of statistical methods involved in the design of testing programs and the analysis of resulting data. This study is an effort to make some progress in those directions.

The results in this study indicate areas where the conduct of and the summarization and reporting of results from chronic aquatic toxicity tests can be further standardized and made easier to understand. A number of the statistical approaches and procedures discussed and/or developed in this study have not to the authors' knowledge been previously applied to aquatic toxicity data. These improved methods provide increased information, as compared with standard methodology, about the structure, relations, and anomolies in the data. They enhance the sensitivity of statistical analyses, so that greater precision of results can be obtained without increasing the amount of testing. In brief this study provides methods that should improve the reporting and statistical analysis of data from chronic aquatic toxicity tests. This will enhance the sensitivity of conclusions that can be derived from these tests, thereby increasing their efficiency.

Approach

All the statistical procedures discussed in this report are illustrated with examples based on real data from chronic tests with fathead minnows. At the outset of the study the principal investigators visited the USEPA Environmental Research Laboratory at Duluth to become oriented to the apparatus and procedures used in chronic toxicity tests. Discussions were held with various investigators concerning the details of their studies. Some of these investigators provided us with illustrative data to be used in our subsequent work.

A number of sets of experimental data were received from Duluth. The literature pertaining to chronic toxicity tests in general and to those tests in particular was reviewed and discussed between statistician and toxicologist. Based on an understanding of experimental procedures it was possible to then start considering the statistical aspects of the problems. The statistical procedures discussed in the body of this report represent a combination of methods taken from the statistical literature where appropriate or developed especially for aquatic toxicity testing applications where standard procedures were felt not to be the most appropriate.

Results

Arguments for the use of standardized fish stocks and standardized data reporting formats are presented. Aspects of the statistical analysis of toxicity data are discussed and the suggested procedures are illustrated with examples based on fish toxicity studies. Data analysis topics discussed include: graphical displays, preliminary tests of tank to tank heterogeneity within treatment groups, preliminary outlier detection tests, overall tests of heterogeneity in response rates across treatment groups, treatment group-control group pairwise multiple comparison procedures, the fitting of standard and nonstandard dose response curve models, analysis of variance and multiple regression analyses on quantitative responses, statistical power and estimation precision to be expected for various levels of sample size and suggestions for unequal allocation of experimental effort across treatment groups with greater effort expended on the control group and lower treatment groups.

Conclusions and Recommendations

- 1. The USEPA should revise and update the standard procedure for life cycle tests on fathead minnows.
- 2. Standardized data reporting sheets are a very useful adjunct to the categorization and analysis of chronic toxicity test data.

- Guidelines on disposal of potentially hazardous effluent from chronic toxicity tests should be incorporated in the procedure.
- 4. Detailed procedures for chemical analysis and quality assurance of chemical data should be incorporated in the procedure.
- 5. Some of the "standard" methods currently used for analyzing data from aquatic toxicity tests can and should be modified. The data should first be graphed, outlying observations or groups of observations should be located and the reason for their aberrant behavior determined, and tests for heterogeneity among tanks within groups should be carried out. Based on the results of these preliminary inferences, the data should be modified or adjusted to account for possible heterogeneity or aberrant values before going on to the inferences of primary interest.
- 6. If hypothesis tests are to be used to compare the treatment group and control group responses they should be one sided tests which are sensitive to monotone alternatives, rather than overall analysis of variance type "shotgun" tests.
- 7. Multiple comparison procedures and confidence intervals procedures should be used to determine specifically which treatment groups have responses which differ from the control group responses and whether the differences are of a specified biological significance. Significance tests, by themselves, are not adequate to define an "MATC" (i.e., maximum acceptable tolerable concentration). Perhaps a confidence bound should be routinely constructed at the MATC to determine just how much worse than the control group the response at that concentration could conceivably be. In general, confidence intervals impart much more information than hypothesis tests and should be routinely used.
- 8. A good way to place monotone response structure on the problem, to amouth the data, and to convert a hypothesis testing problem into an estimation problem is to fit dose response curve models to the data and to define the "safe" concentration as that which results in no more than a specified increment in response from the control group. A number of nonstandard variants on the "standard" dose response models discussed in the literature may be useful. A nonparametric approach to dose response estimation is feasible, has been implemented in a computer program, and may be preferable on occassion to some of the standard parametric dose response models.

- 9. Statistical power and estimation precision depend both on the number of tanks run per group and the number of fish per tank. In the presence of substantial tank to tank heterogeneity the effective sample size may be more nearly the number of tanks than the number of fish. Thus in the presence of tank to tank heterogeneity, diminishing returns result from increasing the number of fish used without also increasing the number of fish tanks per group.
- 10. Under certain circumstances it is sensible to allocate experimental resources so that the control group and lower concentration groups receive more tanks and fish than the higher concentration groups. This results in greater inference sensitivity in the region of the MATC. Proportional diluters should be modified to permit such asymmetrical allocations of tanks, at the discretion of the investigator.
- 11. Statistical power or statistical precision goals should be stated as part of the protocol for each individual toxicity test and sample sizes should be determined accordingly.

PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS SUPPORTED BY THE CONTRACT

Reports and Papers

- Feder, P. I. and Sherrill, M.C., "A Computer Program to Calculate Nonparametric Lower Confidence Bounds on Safe Concentration in Quantal Response Toxicity Tests, "Technical Report No.215, Department of Statistics, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, September 1980.
- Feder, P.I. and Willavize, Susan A., "EXAX2 -- A Computer Program to Compare Binomial Proportions, Program Description and Card Input Information, "Technical Report No.216, Department of Statistics, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, September 1980.
- 3. Feder, P.I. and Collins, W.J., "Considerations in the Design and Analysis of Chronic Aquatic Tests of Toxicity," Aquatic Toxicology and Hazard Assessment: Fifth Conference, ASTM STP 766, J.G. Pearson, R.B. Foster and W.E. Bishop, Eds., American Society for Testing and Materials, 1982, pp.32-68.

Presentations

- 1. "Considerations in the Design and Analysis of Chronic Aquatic Tests of Toxicity," Feder, P.I. and Collins, W.J. Fifth Annual Symposium on Aquatic Toxicology, American Society for Testing and Materials, Committee E35, October 1980.
- 2. "Design and Analysis of Aquatic Tests of Toxicity," Feder, P.I. 36th Annual Conference on Applied Statistics, American Society for Quality Control and American Statistical Association, December 1980.

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Paul I. Feder, Department of Statistics William J. Collins, Department of Entomology Susan Willavize, Department of Statistics Mary Sherrill, Department of Statistics Gerald Skinner, Department of Statistics

Foreword

The investigators gratefully acknowledge the assistance and expert contributions to the project of the following graduate assistants: Susan Willavize and Mary Sherrill, Department of Statistics and Gerald Skinner, Department of Zoology. Charles Stephan of the USEPA Environmental Research Laboratory, Duluth, Minnesota was kind enough to arr 'ye for us to talk to a number of investigators at his laboratory about = conduct of toxicity tests. Duane Benoit, Dave Defoe, Gary Holcombe, Jarvinen, Gary Phipps and Robert Spehar of that laboratory an cary Kimball, formerly at the University of Minnesota, sent us a r data sets to be used to illustrate the statistical methodolog in the report. EPA, Environmental Research Laboratory - Dulu - we permission to use these data for illustrative purposes in the report. Paul Gibbs, Jerry Highfill, J. Gareth Pearson and William van der Schalie of the U.S. Army Medical Bioengineering Research and Development Laboratory provided guidance, suggestions, and coordination throughout the conduct of the study. Wayne Nelson kindly granted permission to reproduce his charts for confidence limits for the ratio of two Poisson means.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
Executiv	e Summary	ii
Publicat	cions and Presentations	vi
Foreword	ı	viii
Table of	Contents	ix
Figures		xiv
Tables		xviii
Introduc	tion	хiх
Section		
I.	Assemble and Evaluate Information on Test Methods	1
II.	Categorizing Data Sets	2
III.	Organization of Data: Standardized Data Records	3
	A. Composite of Experimental Conditions	3
	B. Data Sheets for Separate Categories of Data	5
	C. Transfer of Experimental Data to Standardized Data Sheets	9
IV.	Analysis of and Comments on the Test Procedure	10
	A. Physical System	10
	R Chemical System	10

Section		Page
v.	Early Life Stage Toxicity Tests	11
	A. Background	11
	B. Data	11
VI.	Preliminary Graphical Data Displays	18
VII.	Testing for Tank to Tank Heterogeneity Within Treatment Groups	27
	A. Background	27
	B. Remarks on Some "Standard" Procedures	27
	C. Separate Heterogeneity Tests Within Treatment Groups	32
VIII.	EXAX2 A Computer Program to Test for Hetero- geneity of Responses Among Tanks Within Treatment Groups	44
IX.	Adjustments to Account for Tank to Tank Hetero- geneity Within Treatment Groups	51
	A. Background, Derivations, and Discussion	51
	B. Illustrations	55
х.	Outlier Detection Procedures	63
	A. Background	63
	B. Applications of Outlier Detection Procedures to Fish Toxicity Data	64
XI.	Testing for Concentration Related Effects	88
	A. Background	88
	B. Chi Square Test of Homogeneity Across Treatment Groups	89
	C. One Sided Tests of Homogeneity Across	92

Section		Page		
XII.	Treatment Group vs Control Group Pairwise Multiple Comparison Procedures			
XIII.	Confidence Interval Procedures for Comparison of Treatment Group and Control Group Response Rates	120		
	A. Introduction	120		
	B. Method 1 Asymptotic Approach	122		
	C. Method 2 Exact, Small Sample Confidence Intervals	125		
	D. Method 3 Poisson Approximation	132		
xIV.	Dose Response Curve Estimation Probit Analysis	145		
	A. Introduction. Dose Response Estimation vs Hypothesis Testing	145		
	B. Probit Analysis Using SAS PROC PROBIT	147		
XV.	Dose Response Curve Estimation Maximum Likelihood Estimation by Nonlinear Least Squares Regression			
XVI.	Nonparametric Lower Confidence Bounds on Safe Concentrations	199		
XVII.	Analysis of Quantitative Responses	244		
	A. Preliminary Scatterplots	246		
	B. Outlier Detection Procedures and Testing for Tank to Tank Heterogeneity Within Groups	246		
	C. Multiple Comparison Procedures and Regression Analysis	251		
XVIII.	Experimental Design Considerations	267		
	A. Assumptions, Additional Variables to Measure,	267		

Section		Page
	B. Sample Size and Power Considerations for Qualitative Survival Data	270
	C. Expected Precision for Comparisons of Treatment Group and Control Group Survival Probabilities	277
	D. Power Calculations for Quantitative Weight Response	279
	E. Unequal Allocations of Testing Effort Among Treatment Groups	284
XIX.	Design and Analysis Considerations for Full Life Cycle Tests Distinct from Those for Early Life Stage Tests	288
References		290
Appendix A Example	AII [*] Early Life Stage Data Sets Used as es in the Body of the Report	294
	VII* Theoretical Bases of Chi Square and Based Tests of Tank to Tank Variation Within ent Groups	306
Appendix A	WIII.1* Output from EXAX2 Computer Program	308
	VIII.2* Description and Instructions for Use (2 Computer Program	345
Appendix A Detecti	X* Theoretical Bases of Suggested Outlier on Transformations	362
	XV* Confidence Interval on Concentration orresponds to a Given Level of Increase in Resonse ontrol Group Response	365

^{*}Appendices are numbered so as to indicate their relation to corresponding
Bection numbers in the body of the report.

<u>Section</u>	<u> Page</u>
Appendix AXVI.1* Confidence Bounds on Binomial Probabilities	368
Appendix AXVI.2* Description and Instructions for use of Nonparametric Dose Response Estimation Computer	0.60
Program	369

^{*}Appendices are numbered so as to indicate their relation to corresponding section numbers in the body of the report.

FIGURES

Section			Page
v	1.	Standardized data reporting format for results of early life stage test compound C DeFoe	13
	2.	Computerized data format for results of early life stage test compound C DeFoe	16
VI	1.	DeFoe compound C percentage embryo mortality by treatment group	19
	2.	DeFoe compound C percentage fry mortality by treatment group	20
	3.	DeFoe compound C percentage embryo abnormality by treatment group	21
	4.	DeFoe compound C percentage fry abnormality by treatment group	22
	5.	Holcombe and Phipps compound D embryo mortality by treatment group	23
	6.	Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality by treatment group	24
	7.	Holcombe and Phipps compound D embryo abnormality by treatment group	25
	8.	Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry abnormality by treatment group	26
VII	1.	Probit fit to individual responses DeFoe compound C (excluding control group)	34
	2.	Probit fit to responses pooled across tanks within groups DeFoe compound C (excluding control group)	35
	3.	Chi square test of homogeneity based on individual responses DeFoe compound C fry mortality	36
	4.	Chi square test of homogeneity based on responses pooled across tanks within groups DeFoe compound C fry mortality	37

Secti	<u>on</u>		Page
	5–10.	Chi square test of homogeneity of percent fry mortality in groups 1-6. Data from Holcombe and Phipps compound D	38
x	1.	Normal probability plot of standardized values based on DeFoe compound C embryo mortality data to detect outlying responses	83
	2.	Normal probability plot of standardized values based on DeFoe compound C fry mortality data to detect outlying responses	84
	3.	Normal probability plot of standardized values based on Holcombe and Phipps compound D embryo mortality data to detect outlying responses.	85
	4.	Normal probability plot of standardized values based on Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality data to detect outlying responses	86
	5.	Normal probability plot of standardized values based on Jarvinen compound B embryo mortality data to detect outlying responses	87
ΧI	1.	SAS PROC FREQ output from chi square test for homogeneity across groups applied to fry mortality data from Holcombe and Phipps test on compound D	101
	2-7.	EXAX2 output chi square test of homo- geneity across groups	102
	8.	Input information required for program BMDP1F	108
	9-11.	BMDP1F output from one sided measure of association test on artificial data	109
	12-15.	BMDP1F output on real data	112
XIII	1-2.	EXAX2 output from calculation of exact, small sample confidence intervals on the odds ratios between treatments and	137

CONTRACTOR OF THE CONTRACTOR O

Secti	.on		Page
	3-5.	Poisson two sample confidence interval charts 90, 95, 99 percent (from Nelson, 1969)	142
XIV	1.	Schematic representation of dose response curve formulation	159
	2.	Basic data	160
	3-6.	Output from PROC PROBIT fit to DeFoe fry mortality data arithmetic concentration	161
	7-8.	PROC PROBIT fit to DeFoe fry mortality data no background correction	165
	9.	PROC PROBIT fit to DeFoe fry mortality data logarithmic transformation of concentration	167
	10.	Basic data	168
	11-14.	Output from PROC PROBIT fit to Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality data arithmetic	
		concentration, logarithmic concentration	169
	15-18.	Plots of observed and predicted based on probit fit arithmetic concentration, logarithmic concentration	173
xv	1.	Holcombe and Phipps compound D mortality and concentration data pooled	ے 190
	2-4.	Output from SAS PROC NLIN applied to Holcombe and Phipps data untransformed concentration	191
	5-7.	Logit fit to Holcombe and Phipps data using SAS PROC NLIN untransformed concentration	194
	8.	Use of SAS PROC NLIN to fit nonstandard dose response model to data	197
	9.	Output from SAS PROC NLIN to fit nonstandard dose response model to data	198
XVI	1.	Schematic description of nonparametric dose response estimation procedure Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality data	241
	2-3.	Benoit compound A fry mortality vs arith- metic concentration, logarithmic concentration	242

PRODUCTION AND RESERVED TO SERVED TO

Section	Section		
XVII	1.	Average weight per tank vs group	254
	2.	Standard deviation of weight per tank vs group	255
	3.	Average weight per tank vs concentration	256
	4.	Average weight per tank vs log concentration	257
	5-6.	Analysis of variance fit of individual weights (logarithmic weights) on group and tank within roup. Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality data	258
	7.	Expected mean squares in analysis of variance fits to Holcombe and Phipps fry mortality data	260
	8.	Analysis of variance fit of average weights per tank on group. Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality data	261
	9.	Residuals vs group	262
	10.	Logarithmic residuals vs group	263
	11.	Normal probability plot of residuals from untransformed weights	264
	12.	Normal probability plot of residuals from logarithmic weights	265
	13.	Regression fit of weight gain on log (1 + CONC). Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality data	266
XVIII	1.	Effective sample size per group vs sample	287

TABLES

Section			Page
VII	1-2	DeFoe compound C fry mortality data probit fit to groups 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, individual tanks, pooled tanks within groups	30
IX	1.	Effective sample sizes and responses in Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality data after adjustment for tank to tank heterogeneity	58
	2.	Effective sample sizes and responses in Jarvinen compound B embryo mortality data after adjustment for tank to tank heterogeneity	62
XVIII	1.	Power of one sided pairwise comparisons of survival rates between control group and treatment groups. α = 0.05	272
	2.	Expected half lengths of 95 percent two sided confidence intervals for comparisons between treatment group and control group response rates	277
	3.	Power of one sided pairwise comparisons of average weight gains between control group and treatment group. α = 0.05	281

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INTRODUCTION

During the 1960's and 1970's, environmental contamination in general and water pollution specifically, became increasingly important as legal and scientific problems. Regulatory agencies needed scientific data to support the notion that a problem existed and also needed factual information for establishing tolerance limits for levels of chemical discharges into surface waters. From that need evolved numerous standard toxicity tests, including a test to determine the long term effects of toxicants on a representative fish, the chronic toxicity test with fathead minnows.

Aquatic toxicologists and biologists evolved and refined an effective fish toxicity test. As data were analyzed and experiments designed, the statistical considerations evolved to a more complex level. It became clear that some of the statistical procedures needed for the design of toxicity tests and for the analysis of chronic toxicity data may be novel or unique and should be developed specifically for fish toxicity tests.

Operational activities of the U.S. Army (e.g. munitions manufacture) involve the production, use, and/or discharge of a variety of commercial chemicals. Safety data must be provided to USEPA concerning surface water contamination due to discharges of chemical intermediates or the final product. In-house research of the U.S.Army with the standard fish chronic toxicity test highlighted the need for a reexamination of the standard procedures, especially regarding statistical techniques. The main goals of this project are to suggest statistical procedures for analyzing data arising from such toxicity tests, to provide recommendations for a more accurate, reliable standard procedure, and to facilitate research in aquatic toxicology in general.

This project was initiated as an interdisciplinary investigation of the EPA chronic toxicity test for fathead minnows. It combined the efforts of a toxicologist, a fish specialist, and statisticians. The biologists functioned as advisors to the statisticians in regard to the characteristics and limitations of the test animal, test procedures, and chronic toxicity data and evaluated the test procedure from a toxicological viewpoint.

The statisticians developed procedures for data storage, transformation and analysis, scrutinized published statistical techniques for their applicability to fish toxicity data, and devised new statistical methods for analyzing data from fish toxicity tests when they were felt to be more applicable than the standard methods.

This final report is the synthesis of a one year effort. It discusses both biological and statistical aspects of the planning, conduct, reporting, and data analyses associated with toxicity tests on fathead minnows.

Arguments for the use of standardized fish stocks and standardized data reporting formats are presented. Aspects of the statistical analysis of toxicity data are illustrated with examples based on fish toxicity studies. Data analysis topics discussed include: graphical displays, preliminary tests of tank to tank heterogeneity within treatment groups, preliminary outlier detection tests, adjustments in analysis procedures due to tank to tank heterogeneity, overall tests of heterogeneity in response rates across treatment groups, treatment group-control group pairwise multiple comparison procedures, the fitting of standard and nonstandard dose response curve models, analysis of variance and multiple regression analyses on quantitative responses, statistical power and estimation precision to be expected for levels of sample size and suggestions for unequal allocation of experimental effort across treatment groups with greater effort expended on the control group and lower treatment groups.

It is hoped that the results obtained in this study will contribute to better, more reliable toxicity tests and data analyses. This in turn should provide improved tools for the regulation of toxic chemicals in aquatic environments and should suggest fertile areas for further study and development.

I. ASSEMBLE AND EVALUATE INFORMATION ON TEST METHODS

Although the scope of work specified that design and analysis of chronic toxicity tests would be researched, it became clear early in the project that many aspects of statistical analysis could be pursued using exemplary data from early life stage tests. Consequently, the review of test methods and our literature search included both chronic lifecycle tests and early life stage tests.

Three literature sets were searched by computer using appropriate key words (fathead minnow, toxicity, chronic tests, etc.): Mechanized Information Center, The Ohio State University; Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, Tenn.; Ohio Environmental Protection Agency, Columbus, Ohio. The latter search encompassed 13 major data base searches (Amer. Chem. Soc., Biol. Abstracts, etc.). The hundreds of citations received were reviewed for relevancy and the important ones were abstracted and filed. Reprints of copies or articles, 64 in all, that were considered to be directly related to future tasks were assembled, catalogued and reviewed in detail.

These publications provided information on the fathead minnow in regard to biology, life cycle events, duration of developmental stages, nutritional information and reproductive characteristics. The papers on test methods provided details of variation in design among investigators and a large amount of experimental toxicity data for reference and further discussion.

Papers and technical reports from E.P.A.-Duluth describing the apparatus [1] and procedure [2] for chronic toxicity tests were reviewed and studied in detail in order to understand the method of exposure, physical arrangement of the delivery system and important variations among investigators, e.g. the syringe delivery method of DeFoe [3]. The literature search and research paper perusal was essential for the toxicology group to authoritatively interpret biological factors, experimental data or test methods in discussions with the statistical group or to suggest limitations in design due to the animal or technique.

II. CATEGORIZING DATA SETS

Early in the project, a number of sets of experimental data from early life stage toxicity tests and chronic life cycle toxicity tests were received from and discussed with researchers in EPA-Duluth. Various aspects of these data were reviewed with the statistical group to clarify experimental procedures such as types of measurements and how they were acquired, if measurements were destructive or nondestructive, the replication of experiments and variation of chemical concentration in the delivery system. These discussions brought out the need for standardized data reporting sheets so that data could be accurately categorized and recorded in a systematic manner for entry into the computer and statistical analysis. A separate section on standardized data sheets is included in this report.

The examples in this report are based on some of these experimental data sets. In particular the data sets from early life stage toxicity tests by

Benoit - compound A
DeFoe - compound C
Holcombe and Phipps - compound D
Jarvinen - compound B

are used. These data sets are listed in Appendix AII.

III. ORGANIZATION OF DATA: STANDARDIZED DATA RECORDS

The early life stage data and chronic life cycle toxicity data sets were supplied by six different investigators. Each set of chronic data was received in a unique format. Each set of data was reviewed for the experimental procedure (if available) in order to accurately categorize the data for storage on computer and subsequent statistical analysis. Routine questions, e.g. how many days of exposure, and more complex questions, e.g. are replicate tests genuine replications, were not easily resolved by a review of the data sheets, nor was the comparability of the same categories of data in similar experiments among the array of investigators. Standardized data records have merit if they are sufficiently versatile to meet most needs, clearly summarize the exposure conditions and facilitate transformation, computer storage, and statistical analysis of raw data. The latter task is often done by an individual who is not an expert in biological research and unfamiliar with operational details of toxicity tests.

Good laboratory practice regulations (GLP) have been adopted by FDA for nonclinical laboratory studies [4] to assure the quality of data in support of product safety decisions. One component of the GLP deals with specific record-keeping practices for experimental data. The advantages of these required record-keeping practices have been discussed in regard to vertebrate experiments [5] and would apply equally as well to fish toxicity data to the benefit of investigators, statisticians, and regulatory agencies.

Although there is some variation in the design of fish toxicity tests, certain features are almost universal. For example, in a chronic toxicity test, a flow-through apparatus is always used and standard measurements include hatchability of embryos, fish length and weight, survival (mortality), and spawning data. Consequently, standardized recording sheets could be devised for summarizing exposure methods and experimental data.

Our standardized reporting sheets have two components: (a) a descriptive section summarizing the conditions of the experiment with code words or letters to categorize or define data for the statistician, and (b) the raw data record sheet with no calculations or transformations. These record sheets have been designed for data of early life stage tests or chronic life cycle tests.

A. Composite of Experimental Conditions

1.	Investigator		
2.	Toxicant	; Sourceand	d% purity
3.	Starting Date of Test (Da	y Zero): / / .	

4.	Selection	of	embryos:	_Embryos	selected	randomly.
					examined, cubated.	, only viable
				Other (specify).	

- 5. Are embryos from paired matings? Yes or no.
- 6. Fish I.D.: for use only with paired matings; use a unique identifier here.
- 7. Generation of embryos or fish? Zero or first?

(Note: In chronic tests, some investigators refer to spawnings of exposed adults as first generation embryos, others, second generation. We define zero generation as any stage or form used to start a test and any stages during that generation, including adults. First generation is any of the stages following zero generation adults. One may argue against this system on a biological basis, but it distinguishes between the same stage of separate generations. With this system there is no second generation in a standard chronic life cycle test.)

- 8. Nominal Concentration: identify tanks by nominal concentration of toxicant (mg/1, ug/1), "Solvent control" by "S", "water only control by "W".
- 9. Identify replicate tanks in Nominal Concentration column by "REP" e.g. 0.25 REP; identify equivalent tanks by "EQ", e.g. 0.25 EQ.

(Note: It should always be clear in original data sheets the relation of replicate tanks of the same nominal concentration, a crucial factor in deciding what statistical procedures to use. We define replicate as the simultaneous exposure of fish to similar concentrations of a chemical that are delivered independently, i.e. two tanks containing nominal concentrations that originate from separate syringes in the delivery system are replicates. We define equivalent as the simultaneous exposure of fish to the same concentration of a chemical that is delivered from a common origin, i.e. groups of fish in several screened compartments of the same tank are equivalent groups, as are fish in different tanks supplied equally by tubing that is split after the final dilution. Replicate ("repeated experiment") does not distort the conventional meaning of that term. The choice of equivalent ("equal in quantity") was the best approximation of what occurs.

10. Tank I.D.: identify multiple tanks of the same nominal concentration and type (REP or EQ) by capital letters, e.g. Rep-A, Rep-B, etc.

- 11. Identify simultaneous incubations (same day, same tank) of embryos from <u>different</u> spawnings by adding "x" to the "No. of days since day zero" entry, e.g. 32x, 32x; for simultaneous incubations of eggs from the same spawning, add a "y", e.g. 32y, 32y.
- 12. Embryo cup I.D.: identify multiple embryo cups in the same tank by Tank I.D. and number, e.g. A-1, A-2.
- 13. Identify multiple spawnings on the same date by adding a lower case letter to the entry, "No. of days since day zero", e.g. 32a, 32b.
- 14. Initial exposure (day zero) as: embryos/fry/juveniles (circle one).
- 15. Data entries on one line are/are not from the same fish.

B. Data Sheets for Separate Categories of Data

- 1. Survival Data
 - a. Experimental conditions: use entries 1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 14 from part A to summarize the conditions of the experiment.
 - b. Data Sheet

Investigator	Toxicant	%	purity	
Starting date of	Test (day zero): / /			
	D M Y			

lo. days since	Nominal Concentration	
day zero	Tank I.D.	
	Initial No.	
lays	Alive Alive, normal Dead Lost	
	Total for Interval	
days	Alive Alive, normal Dead Lost	
	Total for Interval	
days	Alive Alive, normal Dead Lost	
	Total for Interval	

2. Fry length or weight

- a. Experimental conditions: Use entries, 1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 14 from Part A to summarize the conditions of the experiment.
- b. Data Sheet

Investigator	
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Toxicant				% purity							
Measurer	nents taker	n da	er first	expos	sure (of this s	stage.				
Starting	g Date of 1	Test (day	zero):	/_/ 	.						
Nominal Conc.	Tank I.D.	Length 1 2	(mm) or 3 4	Weight 5 6	(mg) 7	of I	ndividual 9 10	Fry 11	<u>12 13</u>	14	ᆧ
											:
3. Hat	chability	of embryo	s								
a.	Experimen 8, 9, 10, of the ex	11 and 1	2 from	Use ent Part A t	ries o sum	1, 2, mariz	, 3, 4, 5 se the co	, 6, 7	7, ons		
b .	Data Shee	et									
	Investiga	itor									
Toxican	ıt			% pur	ity						

Starting date of Test (day zero):

	Embryo Cup	Fish	No.days	No. embryos	Cum.no.	Cum. no	Cum. no.
Nominal	I.D.	I.D.	since	at start	hatched	unhatched	unaccounted
Conc.	Tank Cup	_	day zero				for

4. Spawning Data

- a. Experimental conditions: use entries 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 10, and 13 from Part A to summarize the conditions of the experiment.
- b. Data Sheet

	Invest	lgator _				
Toxicant		·			% purity	
Starting	date o	of Test	(day zero)	: / / D M Y	-	
Nominal conc.	Tank I.D.	Fish I.D.	No. days since day zero		No.of Estimated embryos conditions of embryos	Embryos used subsequently? Yes, No. Where?

5. Data on surviving adults

a.	Experimental conditions:	Use	entries 1,	2,	3, 6, 8, 9) ,
	10, 14, and 15 from Part	A to	summarize	the	conditions	3
	of the experiment.					

Ъ.	Doto	Sheet
Π.	Data	Sheer

	Invest	igator	,						
Toxica nt				_ % purit	у				
Starting date of test (day zero): / / D M Y									
			No.days since						

- 6. A data report sheet for chemical analysis of water should be provided if detailed instructions for chemical analysis are included in a revised procedure.
- 7. A separate sheet that need not be standardized should be attached to the data records summarizing important conditions, i.e. ph, temperature, photo period, flow rates, type of food and feeding schedule, etc. and any limits of conditions that vary during the test.
- C. Transfer of Experimental Data to Standardized Data Sheets.

After considerable debugging of the data sheets and several trials with actual data, the experimental data were transferred to data sheets for storage on the computer.

IV. ANALYSIS OF AND COMMENTS ON THE TEST PROCEDURE

The published procedure for chronic toxicity tests [2] has not been revised since 1972. Since that time considerable research on the test <u>per se</u> has been done at EPA - Duluth and elsewhere to improve reliability, reproducibility and accuracy. For example, some conditions specified in the 1972 procedure may be replaced by improved techniques, e.g. handling and selection of embryos, use of paired spawnings, etc. Those changes that could be incorporated as improvements in the test procedure should be made and a revised version published.

Following are comments about specific sections of the procedure, using the number and letter designations of the procedure [2] as a reference.

A. Physical System

4. Flow Rate

Recent USEPA regulations [7] designate certain chemicals as hazardous wastes if and when they are discarded. Guidelines and recommendations on the treatment (clean up) of experimental tank effluent should be included for a test system containing potentially toxic chemicals in ten or more tanks, changing 6 to 10 tank volumes/24 hours in each tank, all operating continuously for months.

14. Where surface water or municipal water is used, a filter system should be considered.

B. Chemical System

2. Measurement of toxicant concentration and

Methods

A much more detailed procedure should be incorporated in this section in conjunction with a carefully formulated standardized reporting sheet. The essence of this suggestion resides in the absolute need to know the limits of chemical concentration changes and to have assurance that the chemical analysis data are reliable.

V. EARLY LIFE STAGE TOXICITY TESTS

A. <u>Background</u> In recent years there has been some movement in the direction of developing toxicity tests that provide much of the information relating to chronic and sublethal toxicant effects that is obtainable from full life cycle tests, yet which require far fewer resources of time, space, cost and which are simpler to carry out and analyze. To accomplish these aims, the use of early life stage toxicity tests has become more common. For fathead minnows such early life stage tests require about thirty days of effort as compared with 250 to 300 days for full life cycle tests. This permits a great many more compounds to be tested.

A number of guidelines for conducting early life stage tests in a standardized manner have been proposed [8, 9, 10]. In these tests, organisms are exposed during part of the embryonic stage, throughout the larval stage, and during part of the juvenile stage. The rationale is that this represents the period of greatest sensitivity of the fish, and so chronic and sublethal toxicant effects will be revealed.

In one version of the test, groups of recently fertilized fish embryos are placed in embryo cups within test chambers. There are generally five or more toxicant groups and one or more control groups. Each (treatment or control) group consists of two or more replicate test chambers. The embryos are kept on test until they hatch (about 5 to 7 days), at which point the live, normal larvae are thinned to the desired number per tank and these are kept on test for about an additional four weeks, at which point the test is terminated. In a variant on this approach, the embryos are thinned after just two days on test. After hatch, all of the live larvae are released into the test chambers for the rest of the test. This avoids handling the newly hatched larvae at a time when they are most sensitive to the toxicant.

B. Data The data recorded in such early life stage tests include number of embryos per embryo cup, number of embryos hatched live and hatched normal, number of fry in each embryo cup after thinning, number of fry live at end of test and number normal, individual weights of all fry alive at end of test, and periodic toxicant concentration measurements within each tank.

Standardized data reporting sheets that facilitate the interpretation of test results and the communication of these results among investigators and laboratories have been developed by investigators at USEPA - Duluth. They have been kind enough to supply us with such sheets from about twenty early life stage tests (personal communication). Figure V. 1 illustrates such a basic data reporting sheet based on the test of compound C carried out by DeFoe.

Page 1 contains embryo and fry survival and normality data and a diagram showing the test layout. We see that in this test there was a single control group (1), five treatment groups (2 to 6), two test chambers per group, and a single embryo cup per test chamber. Page 2 contains individual weight measurements on all the fry that survived the test. Page 3 contains the results of the individual toxicant concentration measurements made in each chamber periodically throughout the test. We have found these data reporting sheets to be very easy to understand and very useful.

In order to work with the data it was necessary to put them into computer readable form. The approach that we took to accomplish this is illustrated in Figure V.2 for the data from the test of compound C by DeFoe. The three types of data -- survival, weight, and toxicant concentration -- are represented in three "card types." The data for each "card type" are listed in Figure V.2. Some applications call for use of just one card type while others call for use of two or more card types. The first six entries on each card are the same across card types -- treatment group (col 2), replicate designation (col 4), card type (col 6), card member (cols 7-8), investigator code (cols 9-10), test code (cols 11-12). This provides enough information to sort the cards by investigator, experiment, type, group, and sequence should the data become disarranged. Card type 1 (survival data) contains in addition number of embryos tested (cols 16-20), number hatched live (cols 21-25), number of fry tested (cols 31-35), number live at end of test (cols 36-40), number normal at end of test (cols 41-45). Card type 2 (weight data) contains number of weights recorded from that particular chamber (cols 14-15), individual weights (5 cols per weight, up to 13 weights per card). Card type 3 (toxicant concentration) contains month (cols 16-17), day (cols 18-19), year (cols 20-21), toxicant concentration (cols 32-38) -- one determination per card. At the head of each type of information several lines of descriptive text are given. This text is informative when the data are printed out but is skipped over for purposes of analysis.

We have found this data organization to be easy to prepare, easy to maintain, and easy to use. Such data files represent the "basic data" for all subsequent analyses discussed in this report.

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Figure V.1 Standardized data reporting format for results of early life stage test --

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Figure V.1 (Cont)

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Figure V. 1 (Cont)

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Figure V.2 Computerized data format for results of early life stage test -- compound C -- DeFoe

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VI. PRELIMINARY GRAPHICAL DATA DISPLAYS

Graphing the data is generally considered to be a good first step in analyzing data. Graphs provide insights into the structure of the data and reveal the presence of possibly unanticipated relations or anomolies in the data.

Figures VI.1 and VI.8 illustrate the kinds of information that can be obtained from preliminary plots. They illustrate percentage embryo and fry mortality and abnormality observed in early life stage tests on fathead minnows conducted by DeFoe with compound C and by Holcombe and Phipps with compound D. The tests each consist of a control group (1) and five treatment groups (2 - 6) with toxicant levels in roughly geometric progression. The DeFoe test was run with four chambers per group. The plotting symbol "A" represents a single response, "B" represents two coincident responses, etc.

Figures VI.1 and VI.5 reveal no trends in embryo mortality with increasing toxicant level in either test. Tank to tank variation within treatment groups appears to be approximately constant across groups except for a single tank in Group 2 (Figure VI.1) which has about 50 percent greater embryo mortality than all the other tanks in the test. It appears to be an <u>outlier</u>, i.e. its response does not seem to conform to the pattern of the bulk of the data.

Figures VI.2 and VI.6 show increasing trends in fry mortality with toxicant concentration in each test. This pattern is to be expected since the larvae are most toxicant sensitive shortly after hatching. In each test tank to tank variation within groups is greatest in the middle and least at the ends, in conformance with binomial theory. No outlying tanks are evident with respect to fry mortality. Note that in both tests the highest treatment groups experience 100 percent fry mortality.

Figures VI.3 and VI.7 exhibit embryo abnormality in the two tests. They are strikingly similar. In the control groups and the four lowest concentration groups there is little or no abnormality among newly hatched live larvae. However in the highest concentration groups there is 100 percent abnormality among newly hatched live larvae. It thus appears that very high concentrations of each of these toxicants will penetrate the embryo.

Figures VI.4 and VI.8 exhibit fry abnormality in the two tests. In brief, there is none. After 32 days the fry have either died or are normal. Recall that the highest toxicant groups experience 100 percent mortality and so there is no abnormality data to plot.

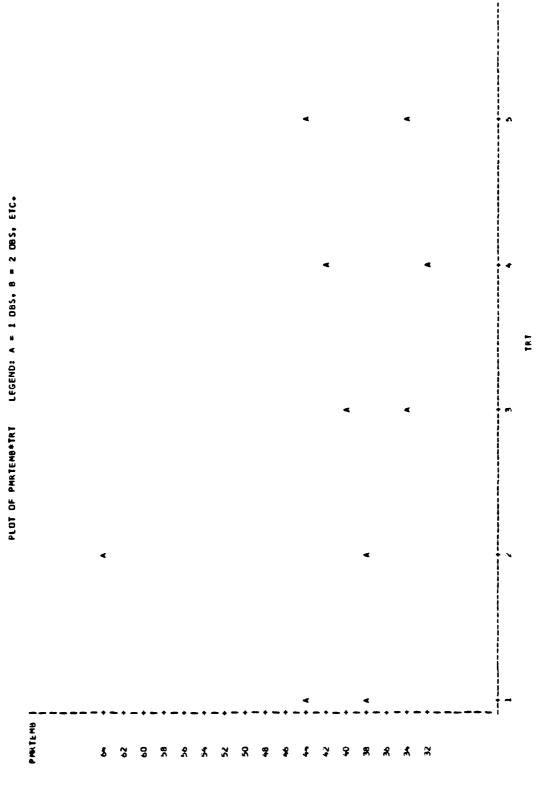
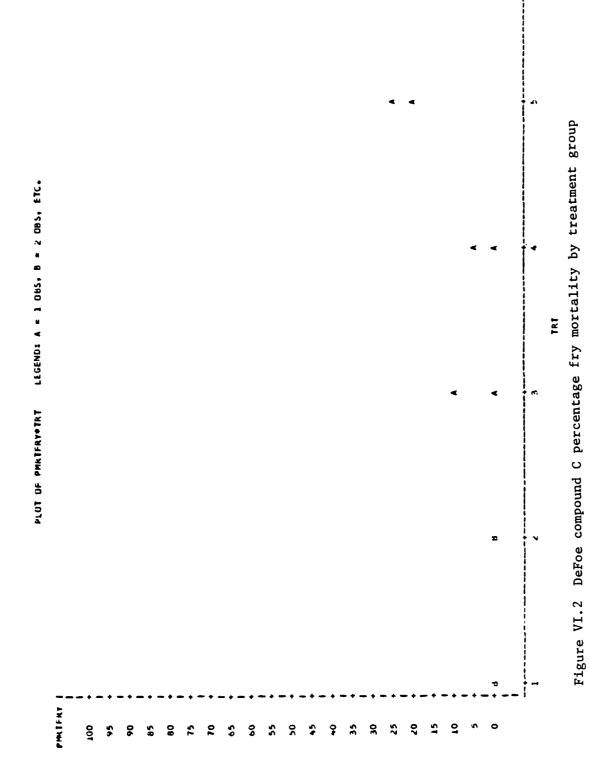
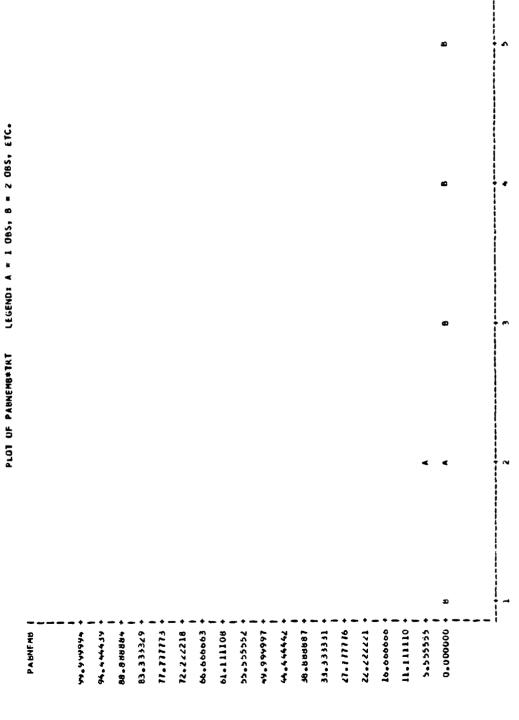


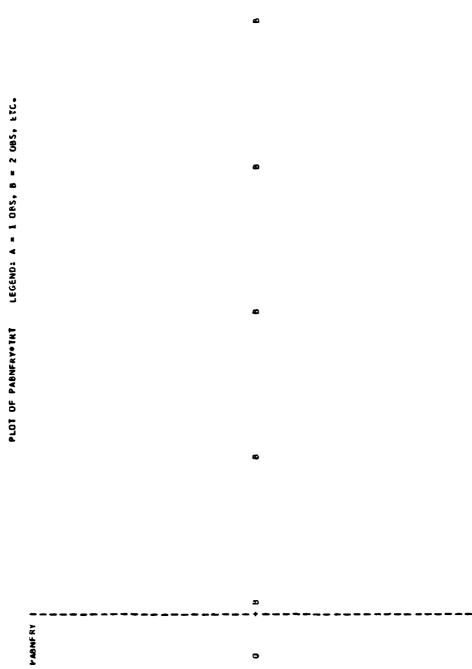
Figure VI.1 DeFoe compound C percentage embryo mortality by treatment group





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DeFoe compound C percentage embryo abnormality by treatment group Figure VI.3



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Figure VI.4 DeFoe compound C percentage fry abnormality by treatment group

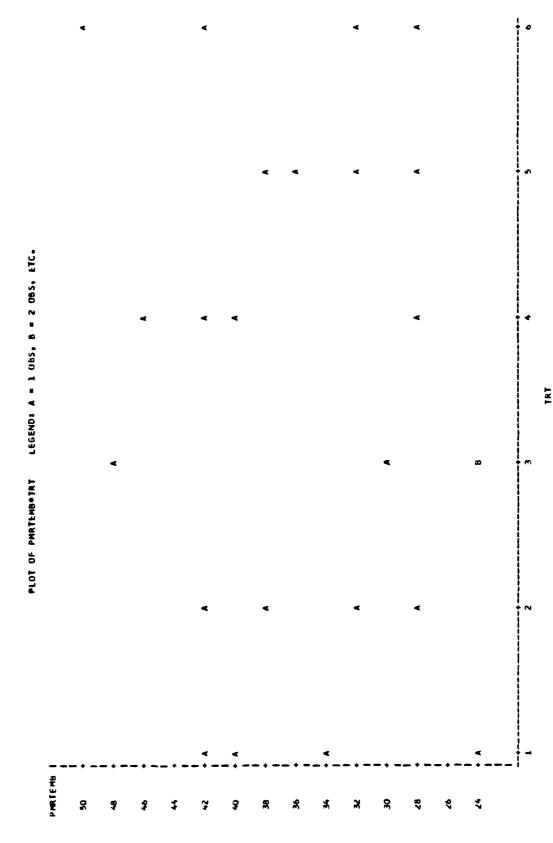
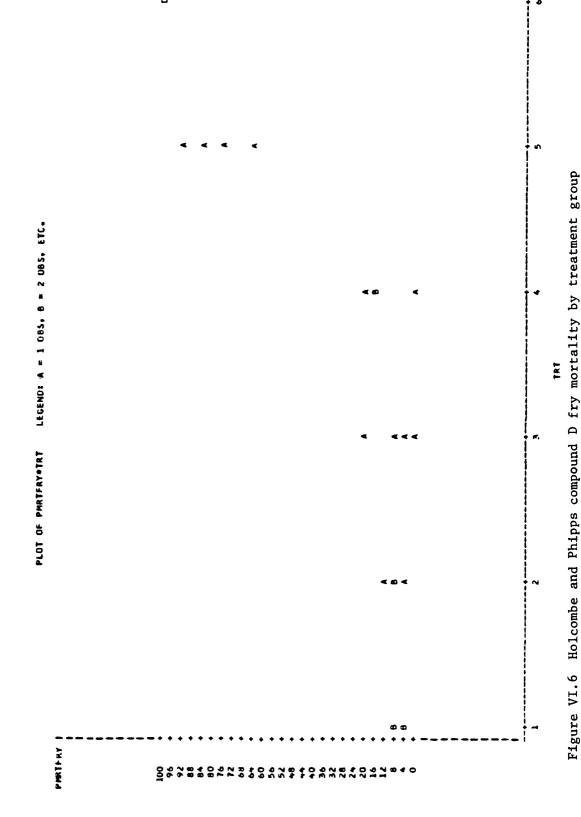
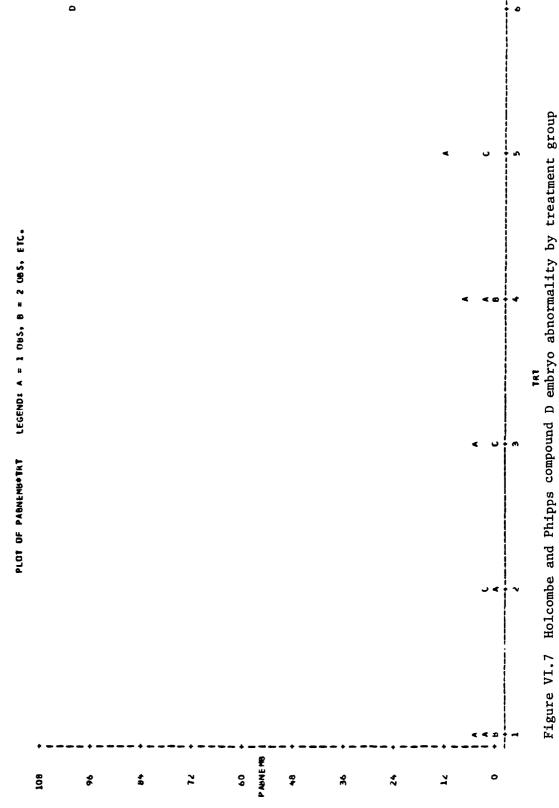


Figure VI.5 Holcombe and Phipps compound D embryo mortality by treatment group



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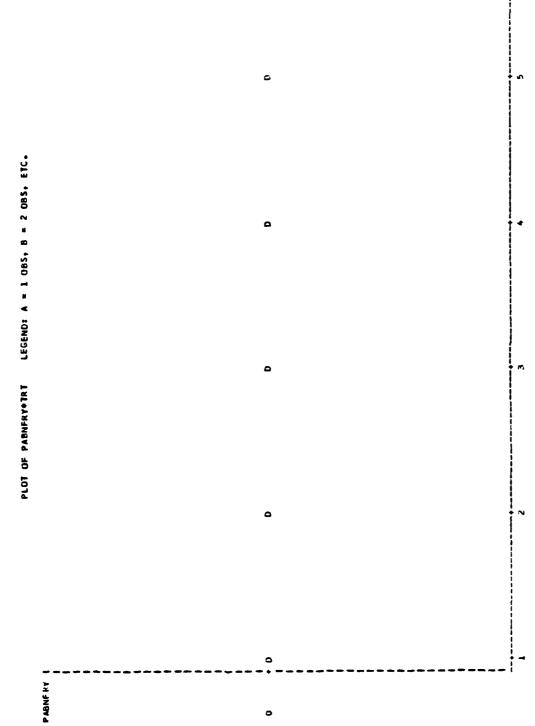


Figure VI.8 Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry abnormality by treatment group

26

VII. TESTING FOR TANK TO TANK HETEROGENEITY WITHIN TREATMENT GROUPS

A. <u>Background</u>. In order to assess variability of response, toxicity tests generally include several fish tanks, usually two to four, within each treatment or control group. EPA guidelines for early life stage and full life cycle toxicity tests with fathead minnow [2, 8] call for at least two replicate test chambers for each treatment group. Some tests use more.

An important preliminary inference of interest in toxicology data analyses is to determine if there is any statistical evidence of variation in response among tanks within treatment groups. Such variation might be due to differences in location or handling of individual tanks, to fungus or illnesses that might invade a tank, to unforseen accidents during the test, etc.

If evidence of tank to tank heterogeneity exists then analyses should be carried out on a per tank basis. If no evidence of tank heterogeneity exists then data might be pooled across tanks within groups and analyses carried out on a per fish basis, ignoring the replicate tanks. For example, mortality rates could be compared based on binomial theory. Such per fish analyses would provide many more degrees of freedom to estimate random error than would per tank analyses and so are more sensitive. For example if there are four tanks per group and 25 fish per tank then a per fish analysis might be based on 99 degrees of freedom per group whereas a per tank analysis would be based on just three degrees of freedom per group.

However the validity of per fish analyses rests on the absence of tank to tank heterogeneity. If there is in fact variation in response rate across tanks within treatment groups then variability estimates based on per fish analyses will underestimate the true variability of the estimates and test statistics. This will result in standard error estimates that are too small, confidence intervals that are too short, and hypothesis testing procedures that falsely reject the null hypothesis more often than their nominal rates (i.e. inflated alpha levels). It is thus important to test for the presence of tank to tank heterogeneity within treatment groups before proceeding on to the analysis of primary interest.

B. Remarks on Some "Standard" Procedures.

Finney [11], section 9.1, pp 175 ff. suggests the following procedure for testing tank to tank heterogeneity. Fit a probit curve to the data based on pooled data across tanks within groups. Fit a probit curve to the data using the individual tanks within groups. The point estimates of the two probit fits will be exactly the same. However the residual chi squares and their

respective degrees of freedom will differ. The differences between these two residual chi squares can be interpreted as the chi square for heterogeneity among tanks within treatment groups. Similar considerations hold for the usual chi square test for homogeneity.

We have carried out this procedure using the probit fit and using the usual chi square test for homogeneity. We compare the results of these two tests. The theoretical bases of these heterogeneity tests are discussed in Appendix AVII.

We illustrate these two heterogeneity test procedures on the fry mortality data. First consider the test of compound C by DeFoe.

Probit Fit

We fitted the probit model to the treatment groups using the (natural) logarithm of concentration and excluding the control group. (Note that the same fit was obtained when the control group was included). The probit fits were carried out using the PROC PROBIT procedure in the SAS statistical computing system [12]. The data consist of I=5 treatment groups, J=2 tanks per group. Thus there are 10 responses to which we fit the two parameter probit model.

$$p_{i} = \Phi(\alpha-5 + \beta\log C_{i})$$
 $i = 2,...,6$

Figures VII.1, VII.2 contain the results of the probit fits to the individual responses and to the responses pooled across tanks within groups respectively. The analysis of variance table, as suggested by Finney, appears in the bottom portion of Figure VII.1. The upper 0.005 point of the chi square distribution with 5d.f. is 16.75. Thus this test for tank to tank heterogeneity within groups is "highly statistically significant". At face value this suggests strong statistical evidence of variation in response rate across tanks within treatment groups.

Chi Square Fit

We now carry out a chi square test of heterogeneity in response rates across tanks within groups based on the usual chi square test of homogeneity across groups. Figures VII.3, VII.4 contain the results of the chi square tests based on the individual responses and on responses pooled across tanks within groups respectively. Control group responses are included in these tests. The tests were carried out using the PROC FREQ procedure in the SAS statistical computing system [12]. The analysis of variance table suggested by Finney appears below.

Source	d.f.	SS
Lack of fit of pooled tanks about model (homogeneity)	5	182.785
Variation of individual tanks w/i tmnt groups (by subtraction)	6	0.89
Lack of fit of individual tanks about model (homogeneity)	11	183.675

Thus the heterogeneity chi square is very small. Thus there is no statistical evidence of variation among tanks within treatment groups.

Note that the conclusions arrived at from this heterogeneity chi square test are in direct contradiction to those arrived at from the heterogeneity chi square test based on the probit fit. What is the cause of the discrepancy?

There are two possible sources of difficulties. The first concerns the probability estimates in the denominators of the test statistics. In the probit based statistic the i-th group response rate in the denominator is estimated as $\hat{P}_{1} = \hat{\Phi}_{1} \equiv \Phi(\hat{\alpha} - 5 + \hat{\beta} \log C_{1}) \text{ whereas in the homogeneity chi square based statistic the i-th group response rate in the denominator is estimated as <math display="block">\hat{P}_{1} = \hat{P} \equiv X_{++}/N_{++} \text{ for all i.} \quad \text{The assumption of constant P values in the denominator is clearly not justified.}$ The assumption of P_{1} values based on the probit model is also not good, as can be seen from the very large residual "chi square" value in Table VII.2. Thus the substantial differences in the response rate estimates that appear in the denominators of the two statistics, along with the probable inadequacies of both sets of estimates, may account for at least a portion of the discrepancy in chi square values.

The second possible source of discrepancy is based on the validity of the chi square assumption itself. The validity of the asymptotic chi square theory is dependent on the cell expected frequencies being large enough. In particular if any responses are observed in cells with very small expected frequencies then very large cell chi squares can result which can greatly inflate the statistic.

Consider the two chi square statistics for lack of fit from the probit model -- one for individual tanks and one for pooled tanks. We break out the individual components of these statistics.

Table VII.1 DeFoe Compound C Fry Mortality Data

Probit fit to groups 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 -- individual tanks Chi square statistic for lack of fit to probit model

		Mean	(X_{ii})		(N _{ii})	^	^	^ ^	
Grp	Tanl	k Conc	Dead	Live	Total	Pi	N _{ij} P _i	$N_{ij}^{P_{i}Q_{i}}$	X ²
2	A	1.991	0	20	20	0.000015	0.000301	0.000301	0.000301
2	В	1.991	0	20	20				0.000301
3	Α	5.976	0	20	20	0.002542	0.050830	0.050701	0 <u>.05</u> 096
3	В	5.976	2	18	20			<	74.9347
4	Α	14.812	0	21	21	0.0475	0.9975	0.9501	1.0473
4	В	14.812	1	19	20		0.95	0.9409	0.00276
5	Α	48.307	4	16	20	0.4227	8.454	4.8805	4.0648
5	В	48.307	5	15	20				2.4444
6	A :	146.984	20	0	20	0.88356	17.6713	2.05764	2.6355
6	В :	146.984	20	0	20				2.6355
									87.8165

This compares with χ^2 = 87.7666 calculated from SAS PROC PROBIT

Table VII.2 Probit fit to groups 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 -- tanks pooled within groups

Chi square statistic for lack of fit to the probit model

	Mean	(X ₁₊)		(N _{i+})	^	^	^ ^	2
Grp	Conc	Dead	Live	Total	P _i	$N_{i+}^{P}i$	$N_{i+}P_{i}Q_{i}$	χ ²
2	1.991	0	40	40	0.000015	0.000602	0.000602	0.000602
3	5.976	2	38	40	0.002542	0.10166	0.10142	35.532
4	14.812	1	40	41	0.0475	1.9475	1.855	0.484
5	48.307	9	31	40	0.4227	16.908	9.761	6.407
6	146.984	40	0	40	0.88356	35.3426	4.11528	<u>5.271</u>
								47.695

This compares with χ^2 = 47.6775 calculated by SAS PROC PROBIT

Comparison of these two chi square values clearly shows the source of the "significant" chi square for heterogeneity. Namely the tanks from group 3 have very small expected frequencies (NP) yet have observed responses. Thus these component chi square values are large and dominate the overall chi square values.

If we remove the group 3 values from the chi square statistics we have:

Separate tanks: $\chi^2 = 87.8165 - 0.05096 - 74.9347 = 12.831$

Pooled tanks: $\chi^2 = 47.686 - 35.532 = 12.154$

The relation between these two chi square statistics is then just like that of the chi square tests resulting from the contingency table tests.

Moral: Uncritical use of the chi square test for homogeneity of tanks within concentration groups recommended by Finney can lead to completely incorrect results and results contradictory to those of other homogeneity tests because of:

- small expected frequencies within cells
- response rate estimates based on particular (possibly inappropriate) model fitted

We repeated the same calculations on the fry mortality data in the test of compound D by Holcombe and Phipps.

Probit Fit

Using all six groups, a logarithmic transformation of concentration, and Abbott's correction for background response we obtain:

Source	d.f.	S.S.
Lack of fit of pooled tanks about probit model	3	0.5064
Variation of individual tanks w/i tmnt groups (by subtr)	18	21.7906
Lack of fit of individual tanks about probit model	21	22.2952

The value 21.7906 is at the upper 24 percent point of a chi square distribution with 18 d.f. and so is nonsignificant.

Chi Square Fit

There are I = 6 groups, J = 4 tanks per group. We carry out chi square tests of heterogeneity in response rates across tanks within groups based on the usual chi square test of homogeneity across groups. We obtain:

Source	d.f.	S.S.
Lack of fit of pooled tanks about model (homogeneity)	5	389.676
Variation of individual tanks w/i tmnt groups (by subtr)	18	10.198
Lack of fit of individual tanks about model (homogeneity)	23	399.874

The heterogeneity chi square is again small. There is no statistical evidence of variation among tanks within treatment groups. Note however that there is strong statistical evidence of variation in response rate from group to group, as would be expected. Thus the weights in the denominator of the heterogeneity chi square statistic are suspect.

C. Separate Heterogeneity Tests Within Treatment Groups

We have seen for DeFoe's fry mortality data that we can obtain diametrically opposite conclusions about heterogeneity of responses within treatment groups depending on whether the test for homogeneity was based on a probit model fit or on a contingency table fit. This was attributed to

- 1. differences in the weights used in the denominators of the chi square statistics (based on the assumed model)
- 2. small expected frequencies within cells that invalidate asymptotic distribution theory.

To account for problem (1), we carry out separate <u>chi square</u> heterogeneity tests within each concentration group, without imposing any structure on the form of the concentration-response relation. We do this by carrying out separate chi square tests within each group and then pooling the results across groups.

There is however, a technical problem associated with this approach. For many (if not most) of the responses of interest the probabilities of occurrence are fairly close to 0 or 1. Therefore the expected frequencies of occurrence can be rather small, thus invalidating the use of asymptotic chi square theory. We illustrate this phenomenon with the Holcombe and Phipps fry mortality data, broken down by group. The output (from SAS PROC FREQ) is shown in Figures VII.5 to VII.10

We see that groups 1, 2, 3, have small expected numbers of dead fry (less equal to 2.0). Group 4 has expected dead = 3.3 and group 6 has expected live per tank = 0. Thus groups 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 have small expected frequencies in at least some of the cells of the table.

We use a (relatively stringent) criterion of applicability of asymptotic chi square theory that requires that there be an expected frequency of at least 5 within each cell of the table. Only group 5 satisfies this criterion within the Holcombe and Phipps data. We must thus base some of the within groups heterogeneity tests on exact, small sample theory.

Thus we wish to pool \underline{across} groups the results of tests of homogeneity of responses \underline{among} tanks \underline{within} groups. Some of these tests are based on asymptotic theory while others are based on exact, small sample theory.

We have developed a computer program, EXAX2, to carry out such a procedure. We discuss this program in detail and illustrate its application in the following section.

Dixon and Massey [13] page 233, has a slightly more liberal criterion, namely "...none of the F_i 's (i.e. expected frequencies) is less than 1 and not more than 20% of the F_i 's are less than 5..." Again, only group 5 would satisfy this.

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Figure VII.1 Probit fit to individual responses DeFoe compound C (excluding control group)

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Probit fit to responses pooled across tanks within groups $\ensuremath{\mathsf{DeFoe}}$ compound C (excluding control group) Figure VII. 2

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Figure VII.3 Chi square test of homogeneity based on individual responses DeFoe compound C fry mortality.

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Ery mortality data contradgraup included toute probad within concentration group Figure VII.4 Chi square test of homogeneity based on responses pooled across tanks within groups DeFoe compound C fry mortality.

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Figure VII.5 Chi square test of homogeneity of percent fry mortality in Group 1. Data from Holcombe and Phipps compound D

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Figure VII.6 Chi square test of homogeneity of percent fry mortality in group 2. Data from Holcombe and Phipps compound D

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Figure VII.7 Chi square test of homogeneity of percent fry mortality in group 3. Data from Holcomberand or and Phipps compound D

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FRY MORTALITY

Figure VII.8 Chi square test of homogeneity of percent fry mortality in group 4. Data from Holcombe and Phipps compound D

HOLCOMBE AND PHIPPS COMPOUND D

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Figure VII.9 Chi square test of homogeneity of percent fry mortality in group 5. Data from Holcombe and Phipps compound D

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			•	TOTAL	25	32	25	. 25	700	

Figure VII.10 Chi square test of homogeneity of percent fry mortality in group 6. Data from Holcombe and Phipps compound D

VIII. EXAX2 -- A COMPUTER PROGRAM TO TEST FOR HETEROGENEITY OF RESPONSES AMONG TANKS WITHIN GROUPS

We saw in the previous section for DeFoe's fry mortality responses from the test on compound C that we obtained diametrically opposite impressions about the existence of tank to tank heterogeneity within groups depending on whether we based our homogeneity test on a probit model fit or on a congingency table fit. This was attributed to

- 1. Differences in weights used in the denominators of the chi square statistics (based on the assumed model)
- 2. Small expected frequencies that produce substantial departures from the asymptotic distribution theory.

To take account of problem (1), we use the strategy of carrying out separate chi square heterogeneity tests within each concentration group, without imposing any structure on the concentration response relation.

There is, however, a technical problem associated with this scheme. For many (if not most) of the responses of interest the response probabilities of occurrence are fairly close to 0 or 1. Therefore the expected frequencies of occurrence can be rather small, thus invalidating the asymptotic chi square theory, upon which most of the standard tests are based. We saw this in connection with the fry mortality data from the Holcombe and Phipps test on compound D.

We have developed a computer program, EXAX2, that overcomes this problem. It carries out separate chi square tests within each treatment group, based on asymptotic theory when the expected frequencies within cells are large enough and based on exact, small sample theory when the expected frequencies within cells are small. Thus heterogeneity tests using EXAX2 are applicable even with the relatively small sample sizes and relatively extreme response rates encountered in fish toxicity tests. The theory underlying the program and instructions for its use are described in [14] which included as Appendix AVIII.2. In the body of the section we describe the basis of the calculations in EXAX2 and illustrate its application with examples.

EXAX2 pools the results of tests for heterogeneity in each of $I(I \ge 1)$ 2 x K independent contingency tables (representing I groups, K tanks per group). The homogeneity test within each group is based on the usual chi square statistic, using either its asymtotic distribution or its exact small sample distribution, as appropriate. The following approach is used.

1. Within each concentration group, the chi square for homogeneity among the K tanks is calculated. Let X_{ij} , N_{ij} represent the

number of dead fish and the total number of fish respectively in the j-th tank of the i-th group. Let $\hat{p_i}$ be a pooled estimate of response probability in the i-th group and $\hat{q_i} = 1 - \hat{p_i}$. Then the chi square for group i is

$$\chi_{i}^{2} = \sum_{j=1}^{K} \frac{(x_{ij} - N_{ij}\hat{p}_{i})^{2}}{N_{ij}\hat{p}_{i}\hat{q}_{i}}$$

If \hat{p}_i = 0 or \hat{q}_i = 0 (corresponding to zero percent or 100 percent observed mortality) the table is degenerate and χ^2_i = 0 by definition.

- 2. If all the expected frequencies $(N_{ij}\hat{p}_i, N_{ij}\hat{q}_i)$ are greater then a specified cutoff value (we currently use five), asymptotic theory is used. Thus the observed significance level of χ^2_i is based on the chi square distribution with K 1 d.f.
- 3. If one or more of the expected frequencies is less than the cutoff level, then the exact distribution of χ^2_1 , conditional on the observed marginal totals, is used. The observed significance level is based on this exact distribution. This approach is described in Agresti and Wackerly [15]. The exact distribution of χ^2_1 is computed by systematically enumerating all possible tables having the given margins using the algorithm in Boulton and Wallace [16] and the associated probabilities due to March [18].
- 4. Let A_i denote the observed significance level in the i-th group. We pool the A_i's over groups to obtain an overall test by an approach analogous to Fisher's method as described in Littell and Folks [19, 20]. For each group we calculate, based on exact or asymptotic theory, -2lnA_i and its mean and variance under the null hypothesis of homogeneity.
- The observed significance levels are pooled into a single statistic by calculating

$$Z = \frac{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{I} (-2\ell A_{i})\right]^{1/2} - \left[\sum_{i=1}^{I} E(-2\ell n A_{i})\right]^{1/2}}{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{I} Var(-2\ell n A_{i})/4 \sum_{i=1}^{I} E(-2\ell n A_{i})\right]^{1/2}}$$

Z is referred to a standard normal distribution. The null hypothesis of tank to tank homogeneity is rejected for large values of Z. (The square root transformation is used because it represents the variance stabilizing transformation, under asymptotic

theory, for $\Sigma_i(-2\ell nA_i)$ and thus probably improves the normality approximation.)

In addition to calculating preliminary tests of tank to tank heterogeneity within treatment groups, EXAX2 can carry out several other statistical procedures useful in the analysis of data from aquatic toxicity tests. In particular it can:

- Pool data across tanks within groups and test for heterogeneity of response rate across groups by use of the chi square test and either exact small sample theory or asymptotic large samle theory.
- Calculate confidence intervals on the odds ratios of treatment groups to control group using the exact noncentral distribution of Fisher's exact test statistic.

These applications will be discussed in detail in later section.

We now consider several illustrations of the use of EXAX2 for tests of heterogeneity among tanks within groups. The EXAX2 outputs are shown in the referenced figures. The observed and expected cell frequencies are indicated. If any of the expected cell frequencies are lower than the (user-specified) cutoff of 5, exact distribution theory is used. The exact distribution of chi square, conditional on the marginal totals, is enumerated and displayed. The observed value of chi square, the observed significance level, $-2 \ln A_i$, $E(-2 \ln A_i)$, $Var(-2 \ln A_i)$ are calculated. The six independent tests are combined by summing $-2 \ln A_i$, $E(-2 \ln A_i)$, $Var(-2 \ln A_i)$ over groups and calculating Z.

DeFoe compound C

- a) Embryo mortality
- b) Fry mortality

Holcombe and Phipps, Compound D

- a) Embryo mortality
- b) Fry mortality

Jarvinen, compound B

- a) Embryo mortality
- b) Fry mortality

DeFoe Compound C

Embryo Mortality

There are two tanks per treatment group, 50 embryo per tank. The results from the EXAX2 calculations are shown in Figures VIII.1 to VIII.6 and are summarized below. The pooled significance level calculatations (using Fisher's method) are presented below the results for group 6. The probability of a standard normal deviate exceeding 0.865 is 0.19.

Embryo Mortality

Trt	Method	(Chi sq) XSQØBS	(A _i) AI	(-2lnA _i) YY	E(-2lnA _i) EY	Var(-2lnA _i) VARY
1	asympt	0.37205	0.54189	1.22540	2.00	4.00
2	asympt	6.76271	0.00931	9.35371	2.00	4.00
3	asympt	0.38610	0.53436	1.25338	2.00	4.00
4	asympt	1.07250	0.30038	2.40541	2.00	4.00
5	asympt	1.05086	0.30531	2.37286	2.00	4.00
6	asympt	0.0	1.00	0.0	2.00	4.00
	SY = 16.611 Z = 0.86483		YMU = 12.00		SVARY = 24	.00

Except for group 2, where the response from tank 1 appears to be an outlier, there is no statistical evidence of tank to tank heterogeneity within groups.

Fry Mortality

There are two tanks per treatment group, 20 fry per tank. The result from the EXAX2 calculations are shown in Figures VIII.7 to VIII.12 and are summarized below. The pooled significance level calculations are presented below the results for group 6. The probability of a standard normal deviate exceeding 0.175 is 0.43.

Fry Mortality

Trt	Method	(Chi sq) XSQØBS	(A _i) AI	(-2lnA _i) YY	E(-2lnA _i) EY	Var(-2lnA _i) VARY
1	(Row total = 0)			0.0	0.0	0.0
2	(Row total = 0)			0.0	0.0	0.0
3	EXACT	2.10526	0.48718	1.43825	0.70068	0.5168
4	EXACT	1.07625	0.48780	1.43568	0.70033	0.51499
5	EXACT	0.14337	1.00	0.0	1.12060	2.7544
6	(Row total = 0)			0.0	0.0	0.0
	SY = 2.8739 Z = 0.17516	YM	U = 2.5216		SVARY = 3.7	862

^{*}Figures VIII.1 to VIII.36 are contained in Appendix AVIII.1.

Fry Mortality

Trt	Method	(Chi Sq) XSQØBS	(A _i) AI	(-2lnA _i) YY	E(-2lnA _i) EY	Var(-2lnA _i) VARY
1	EXACT	0.70922	1.00	0.0	1.3544	2.7875
2	EXACT	1.08696	0.95647	0.08901	1.543	3.4415
3	EXACT	7.06870	0.07579	5.15948	1.543	3.4415
4	EXACT	5.21662	0.18667	3.35688	1.7349	2.6708
5	asympt	6.44967	0.01967	4.77915	2.0	4.0
6	(Row total = 0)		1.0000	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SY = 13.385 $Z = 1.09755$		YMU = 8	3.1752	SVARY	= 17.341

Groups 1, 2, 4, 6 show no statistical evidence of tank to tank heterogeneity. Groups 3, 6 show some marginal suggestion of tank to tank heterogeneity. It is interesting to note that in direct analogy with the results for embryo mortality, tank 3 of group 3 has about twice the mortality of the other tanks in the group. This "coincidence" should be further investigated to determine if this increased mortality has a systematic cause. Overall, Z = 1.10. The probability of a standard normal random variable exceeding this value by chance is 0.136. Thus there is at most a marginal suggestion of some possible tank to tank variation, but nothing conclusive.

Jarvinen Compound B

Embryo Mortality

There are two tanks per treatment group, approximately 50 embryos per tank (actually, between 48 and 57 with an average of 51.2). The results from the EXAX2 calculations are shown in Figures VIII.25 to VIII.30 and are summarized below. The pooled significance level calculations are given below the results for group 6. The probability of a standard normal deviate exceeding 2.54 is 0.005.

Embryo Mortality

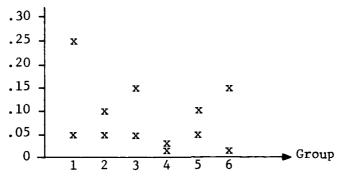
		(Chi Sq)	(A_i)	$(-2\ell nA_i)$	$E(-2\ell nA_i)$	Var(-2lnA _i)
Trt	Method	XSQOBS	ΑĪ	YY	EY	VARY
1	Asympt	6.51208	0.01071	9.07234	2.0	4.0
2	EXACT	1.78430	0.27477	2.58361	1.52817	3.23307
3	EXACT	3.05250	0.15951	3.67136	1.17120	2.77808
4	EXACT	0.00085	1.0000	0.00000	1.04511	1.38125
5	EXACT	0.74812	0.43704	1.65548	1.45242	2.94750
6	EXACT	4.75938	0.05966	5.63828	1.52125	3.17408
SY = 22.62107 Z = 2.54488			YMU = 8.	71816	SVARY	= 17.51398

Groups 1 and 6 show significant differences between mortality rates in replicate tanks. Overall (Z = 2.54) the heterogeneity statistic is significant at $\alpha \cong 0.005$ level. Thus overall there is strong statistical evidence of tank to tank heterogeneity.

Group 1 shows considerable tank to tank heterogeneity in response, group 6 shows moderate tank to tank heterogeneity in response, and group 3 shows marginal tank to tank heterogeneity in response.

If we plot mortality rate by group number we obtain

Embryo mortality rate



In agreement with the DeFoe and Holcombe and Phipps embryo mortality results, we see no trend in embryo mortality rate with increasing toxicant concentration. We see tank to tank heterogeneity in group 1 and to a lesser extent in groups 3, 6. There is the suggestion that the response from tank 1 of group 1 might be an outlier. This will be considered further in section X.

Fry Mortality

There are two tanks per treatment group, approximately 15 fry per tank (between 14 and 16 with an average of 14.9). The results from the EXAX2 calculations are shown in Figures VIII.31 to VIII.36 and are summarized below. The pooled significance level calculations are given below the results for group 6. The probability of a standard normal deviate exceeding -0.84 is 0.80.

Fry Mortality

		(chi sq)	(A ₁)	$(-2lnA_i)$	$E(-2\ell nA_i)$	$Var(2lnA_i)$
Trt	Method	XSQOBS	ΑĪ	YY	EY	VARY
1	(Row total = 0))		0.0	0.0	0.0
2	(Row total = 0))		0.0	0.0	0.0
3	(Row total = 0))		0.0	0.0	0.0
4	(Row total = 0))		0.0	0.0	0.0
5	asympt	0.13393	0.71439	0.67264	2.0	4.0
6	(Row total = 0))		0.0	0.0	0.0

SY = 0.67264

Z = -0.84013

YMU = 2.0

SVARY = 4.0

This test does not reveal the concentration-response curve very well. In groups 1-4 no fry died while in group 6 all the fry died. Thus the tables are degenerate in 5 of the 6 treatment groups. In group 5 there is no suggestion of tank to tank heterogeneity. Thus overall, there is no suggestion of tank to tank heterogeneity.

In summary we have seen several different degrees of tank to tank heterogeneity within groups in the three toxicity tests studied. With respect to embryo mortality the DeFoe test shows no suggestion of heterogeneity with the exception of an isolated outlier, the Holcombe and Phipps test reveals possible suggestion of heterogeneity, and the Jarvinen test reveals strong suggestion of heterogeneity but this may also be due to an outlier. With respect to fry mortality the DeFoe and Jarvinen tests show no suggestion of tank to tank heterogeneity within groups. The Holcombe and Phipps tests shows possible suggestion of tank to tank heterogeneity but the abberrant looking response originates in precisely the same tank as does the aberrant looking embryo mortality response. This raises questions about both responses. In brief, there does not appear to be very much tank to tank heterogeneity within groups and that which does occur may be due to isolated outlying results.

IX. ADJUSTMENTS TO ACCOUNT FOR TANK TO TANK HETEROGENEITY WITHIN TREAT-MENT GROUPS

A. Background, Derivations, and Discussions

We have considered the problem of testing for tank to tank heterogeneity within treatment groups. The results of such tests will influence the way we treat the data in subsequent analyses. Many methods for analyzing qualitative dose response data tacitly assume that there is no tank to tank variation in response rates within groups. Binomial distribution theory is used on data pooled across tanks within groups. Sometimes the assumption of lack of tank to tank heterogeneity is reasonable, as we have seen with the DeFoe and Jarvinen fry mortality data. Sometimes there is borderline statistical evidence of tank to tank heterogeneity, as was the case with the Holcombe and Phipps test (both for the embryo mortality and fry mortality data). In other situations, such as in the embryo mortality data from Jarvinen's test on methyl parathion encapsulated, there is stronger statistical evidence of tank to tank heterogeneity, in at least some of the treatment groups.

In this section we consider methods for accounting for tank to tank heterogeneity when it exists. Three main approaches are possible.

- 1. We can formulate models that explicitly account for tank to tank heterogeneity within groups and fit these models to the data by specialized techniques such as maximum likelihood estimation, using special purpose computer programs. Two such models are the beta binomial [21] and the correlated binomial [22]. This approach requires the formulation of specialized models and development of specialized programs to implement these analyses. Thus such analyses will be difficult for experimenters to carry out and the results of such analyses will be more difficult to interpret.
- 2. We can carry out analyses on a per tank basis rather than on a per fish basis. That is, summary values of such as percent mortality, average weight gain, etc are calculated within each tank and are then used as basic values for subsequent analyses. This is currently the most commonly used approach for analyzing fish toxicity data. While it does correctly account for possible tank to tank heterogeneity, it does so at the cost of considerable reduction in sensitivity. Namely, the data from perhaps 50 to 100 fish or embryos per group are summarized by just two to four summary values. This leaves very few degrees of freedom for estimating error and so diminishes the sensitivity of the subsequent procedures.

3. We can adjust the data to reflect the increased variability due to tank to tank heterogeneity and then use "standard", binomial based techniques on the adjusted "data". This third approach is a workman-like approach and has the dual virtues of being simple to carry out and of permitting the use of "standard" statistical procedures and computer programs for subsequent analyses.

Heterogeneity among tanks within groups can be alternatively regarded as correlation among the responses of the various fish within the same tank. Such correlation is usually positive and this has the effect of increasing the variability of statistics over and above that which would be assumed under a binomial model.

The increased variability can be accounted for by reducing the actual sample size in each tank to an <u>effective sample size</u> and then disregarding the correlation. The number of responses is reduced proportionately so that the observed response rate within each tank remains constant. Suppose for instance there are 40 embryo in a tank and 8 die. We thus have an observed response rate of 0.20. Suppose that the responses within each tank are positively correlated and the variance of \hat{p} is inflated 20 percent by this correlation. That is

$$Var(\hat{p}) = \frac{1.2p(1-p)}{40}$$

Then we can regard the effective sample size within that tank as 40/1.2 = 33.33. To maintain the response rate at the observed level of .20 we adjust the number of responses down to a corresponding effective number 8/1.2 = 6.67. We then analyze the data from this tank by ignoring the correlation and treating the data as if we have 6.67 responses in 33.33 trials. All the standard analysis procedures, predicated on the assumption of no tank to tank heterogeneity within groups, can be applied to the modified "data".

The per tank analyses mentioned in paragraph 2 can be regarded as a limiting case of data adjustment where we adjust the effective sample sizes within tanks all the way down to 1.

We now consider the calculation of adjustment factors. Motivation for the adjustment procedure comes from the form of the beta binomial model [21]. Namely suppose X_{ij} is the number of responses within tank j of treatment group i. The beta binomial model extends the binomial model to allow for tank to tank variation within groups. Thus we assume

$$X_{ij} \sim Binomial (N_{ij}, p_{ij})$$
 conditional on p_{ij} . $j = 1, ..., J$ $i = 1, ..., I$

where
$$p_{i,j} \sim Beta(\alpha_i, \beta_i)$$

and
$$N_{ij}$$
 are fixed.

Let
$$\mu_{i} \equiv \frac{\alpha_{i}}{\alpha_{i} + \beta_{i}}$$
 $\theta_{i} \equiv \frac{1}{\alpha_{i} + \beta_{i}}$
Then $E(p_{ij}) = \mu_{i}$ $Var(p_{ij}) = \mu_{i}(1 - \mu_{i})\frac{\theta_{i}}{1 + \theta_{i}}$

When θ_i = 0, $Var(p_{ij})$ = 0 and we are back to the case of no tank to tank heterogeneity, at least within the i-th group. The larger θ_i is, the greater is the extent of tank to tank heterogeneity. θ_i varies between 0 and ∞ .

Now consider the distribution of X_{ij} .

$$L(X_{ij}, P_{ij}) \sim Binomial (N_{ij}, P_{ij})$$

 $L(P_{ij}) \sim Beta (\alpha_i, \beta_i).$

These two facts imply that \mathbf{X}_{ij} has the marginal beta binomial distribution with probability function

$$P(X_{ij} = x) = {N_{ij} \choose x^j} \frac{B(\frac{\mu_i}{\theta_i} + x, \frac{1 - \mu_i}{\theta_i} + N_{ij} - x)}{B(\frac{\mu_i}{\theta_i}, \frac{1 - \mu_i}{\theta_i})} \qquad x = 0, 1, ..., N_{ij}$$

It can be shown directly that

$$E(X_{i,j}) = N_{i,j}\mu_{i}$$

$$Var(X_{i,j}) = N_{i,j}\mu_{i}(1 - \mu_{i}) \left[\frac{1 + N_{i,j}\theta_{i}}{1 + \theta_{i}}\right] \qquad 0 < \theta_{i} < \infty$$

We see that the variance of X_{ij} is inflated over and above a binomial variance by a multiplicative factor.

Suppose N_{ij} = N_i j = 1,..., J. This assumption is reasonable in fish toxicity tests where N_{ij} represents the number of fish or embryos within the j-th tank of the i-th group. In this case the multiplicative factor becomes $[(1+N_i\theta_i)/(1+\theta_i)] \equiv K_i$, $j=1,\ldots,J$. Thus $Var(X_{ij}) = N_iK_i\mu_i(1-\mu_i)$ where $1 \le K_i^\infty$. Define $\hat{p}_{ij} = X_{ij}/N_{ij}$. \hat{p}_{ij} is the observed response proportion.

Therefore

$$Var(\hat{p}_{1j}) = \frac{K_i}{N_i} \mu_i (1 - \mu_i)$$
 $j = 1..., J$

Thus the effective sample size is N_1/K_1 . As the extent of tank to tank heterogeneity approaches 0(i.e. $\theta_1 \rightarrow 0)$, K_i approaches 1 and N_i/K_i approaches N_i . As the extent of tank to tank heterogeneity gets greater and greater, $K_i \rightarrow N_i$ and so N_i/K_i approaches 1. Thus the two extreme situations are not adjusting the within tank sample sizes at all and adjusting the within tank sample sizes at all and adjusting the within tank sample sizes at all and adjusting the within tank sample size down to 1. The latter adjustment resembles performing analyses on a per tank basis rather than on a per fish basis. Thus method 2 for accounting for tank to tank heterogeneity can be regarded as an extreme case of method 3. Note that if $N_i \equiv N$ and $\theta_i \equiv \theta$ for all i, then $K_i \equiv K$ for all i.

The procedure suggested here for calculating adjustment factors is motivated by the results based on beta binomial theory, but is simpler to carry out.

Let X_{ij} , N_i denote the number of responses and the total number of fish respectively within tank j of group i, $j=1,\ldots,J$. Let $\hat{p}_{ij} \equiv X_{ij}/N_i$. Let p_i denote the average response rate within the i-th group. The actual variance of \hat{p}_{ij} is the binomial theory variance multiplied by the inflation factor K_i . Thus

$$K_{i} = \frac{Var(\hat{p}_{ij})}{\left[p_{i}(1 - p_{i})/N_{i}\right]}$$

This suggests that we can estimate K_i by estimating $Var(\hat{p}_{ij})$ and p_i by their sample analogues. Let

 $\bar{N}_{i} \equiv J^{-1}\Sigma_{j=1}^{J} N_{ij}$, $\hat{\bar{p}}_{i} \equiv J^{-1}\Sigma_{j=1}^{J} \hat{p}_{ij}$, $\hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{ij}) \equiv (J-1)^{-1}\Sigma_{j=1}^{J}(\hat{p}_{ij}-\hat{\bar{p}}_{i})^{2}$ denote the average sample size, the average observed response rate, and the sample variance of response rates within the i-th group respectively. Note that the N_{ij} 's are generally nearly equal in fish toxicity data. We estimate K, as

$$\hat{\mathbf{K}}_{\mathbf{i}} = \hat{\mathbf{V}}_{ar}(\hat{\mathbf{p}}_{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{j}})/[\hat{\bar{\mathbf{p}}}_{\mathbf{i}}(1-\hat{\bar{\mathbf{p}}}_{\mathbf{i}})/\bar{\mathbf{N}}_{\mathbf{i}}]$$

The numerator of this ratio is the observed variance among the \hat{p}_{ij} 's while the denominator is the variance that would be expected just due to binomial variation. We adjust each X_{ij} , N_{ij} in the group downward by a factor \hat{K}_i .

Notes:

- 1. K_i is necessarily greater than 1 but \hat{K}_i may not be. If $\hat{K}_i < 1$ or if there is no statistical evidence of tank to tank heterogeneity then we should not adjust sample sizes.
- 2. Assuming binomial theory when there is in fact tank to tank heterogeneity results in underestimation of the variabilities of

the various statistics calculated. Thus hypothesis tests comparing treatment group and control group response rates will reject more often than they should, thereby resulting in <u>underestimation of noeffect levels</u>. However the opposite effect occurs with respect to inferences about safe concentrations based on dose response curves. Underestimation of variability results in overly large lower confidence bounds on safe concentration. A nominal 95% lower confidence bound may in fact be just an 80% lower confidence bound.

- 3. The decision as to when to adjust sample sizes downward should be reasonably liberal, perhaps when there is statistical evidence of tank to tank heterogeneity at the α = .20 or the α = .25 level. However K_{\star} must always be greater than or equal to 1.
- 4. The calculation of K_i by means of ratios of variances is inefficient. A more precise way of determining K_i would be to estimate θ_i from the data by maximum likelihood estimation and substitute this estimate, $\hat{\theta}_i$, into the expression for K_i . Such an estimate would always be greater than or equal to 1. However such an approach would require special purpose programs. The estimation of \hat{K}_i as discussed in this section is simpler and can be carried out by hand calculation. However in the future we will look in calculation of \hat{K}_i 's by means of maximum likelihood estimation based on the beta binomial model.
- 5. We can calculate separate K_i 's for each treatment group based on the responses solely from the tanks in that group. Alternatively if N_i = N for all i and if θ_i = θ for all i then K_i = K for all i. We can then calculate a common inflation factor \hat{K} for all treatment groups. The question of whether we should fit separate adjustment factors within each group or a single common factor is a research problem in its own right. We defer the answer to that question to future work and in this report confine attention to fitting common adjustment factors for all groups.

If it is sensible on biological grounds, results on tank to tank heterogeneity observed in previous similar tests might be combined with current results to obtain a more accurate adjustment factor.

6. The adjustment procedure might take into account the statistical precisions of the estimates $\hat{K_i}$, \hat{K} . A conservative way to do this would be to use upper confidence bounds on $\hat{K_i}$, \hat{K} as adjustment factors rather than the point estimates. This modification will also await future work.

B. Illustrations

We illustrate the application of this adjustment procedure to several sets of data. First consider the fry mortality data of Holcombe and Phipps for compound D. From the preliminary test of tank to tank heterogeneity within treatment groups we conclude that there is at most marginal

statistical evidence of tank to tank heterogeneity within treatment groups. (The observed significance level is 0.14). In this example J = 4, $N_{ij} = 25$ for all i, j.

Group 1:
$$\hat{p}_{11} = 0.08$$
, $\hat{p}_{12} = 0.08$, $\hat{p}_{13} = 0.04$, $\hat{p}_{14} = 0.04$, $\hat{p}_{1} = 0.06$, $\bar{N}_{1} = 25$, $\hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{1j}) = 0.00053$, $\hat{p}_{1}(1 - \hat{p}_{1})/\bar{N}_{1} = 0.00226$

$$\hat{K}_{1} = \frac{\hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{1j})}{[\hat{p}_{1}(1 - \hat{p}_{1})/\bar{N}_{1}]} = \frac{0.00053}{0.00226} = 0.236$$

Group 2:
$$\hat{p}_{21} = 0.12, \hat{p}_{22} = 0.04, \hat{p}_{23} = 0.08, \hat{p}_{24} = 0.08, \hat{\bar{p}}_{2} = 0.08,$$

$$\bar{N}_{2} = 25, \hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{2j}) = 0.00107, \hat{\bar{p}}_{2}(1 - \hat{\bar{p}}_{2})/\hat{\bar{N}}_{2} = 0.00294$$

$$\hat{K}_{2} = \frac{\hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{2j})}{\hat{\bar{p}}_{2}(1 - \hat{\bar{p}}_{2})/\hat{\bar{N}}_{1}} = \frac{0.00107}{0.00294} = 0.362$$

Group 3:
$$\hat{p}_{31} = 0.08, \hat{p}_{32} = 0.00, \hat{p}_{33} = 0.20, \hat{p}_{34} = 0.04, \hat{p}_{3} = 0.08, \\ \bar{N}_{3} = 25, \hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{3j}) = 0.00747, \hat{p}_{3}(1 - \hat{p}_{3})/\bar{N}_{3} = 0.00294$$

$$\hat{K}_{3} = \frac{\hat{Var}(\hat{p}_{3j})}{[\hat{p}_{3}(1 - \hat{p}_{3})/\bar{N}_{3}]} = \frac{0.00747}{0.00294} = 2.536$$

Group 4:
$$\hat{p}_{41} = 0.16$$
, $\hat{p}_{42} = 0.20$, $\hat{p}_{43} = 0.16$, $\hat{p}_{44} = 0.00$, $\hat{p}_{4} = 0.13$, $\bar{N}_{4} = 25$, $\hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{4j}) = 0.00787$, $\hat{p}_{4}(1 - \hat{p}_{4})/\bar{N}_{4} = 0.00452$

$$\hat{K}_{4} = \frac{\hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{4j})}{[\hat{p}_{4}(1 - \hat{p}_{4})/\bar{N}_{4})} = \frac{0.00787}{0.00452} = 1.739$$

Group 5:
$$\hat{p}_{51} = 0.92$$
, $\hat{p}_{52} = 0.84$, $\hat{p}_{53} = 0.64$, $\hat{p}_{54} = 0.76$, $\hat{\bar{p}}_{5} = 0.79$
 $\bar{N}_{5} = 25$, $\hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{5j}) = 0.01427$, $\hat{\bar{p}}_{5}(1 - \hat{\bar{p}}_{5})/\bar{N}_{5} = 0.00664$

$$\hat{K}_{5} = \frac{\hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{5j})}{[\hat{p}_{5}(1 - \hat{p}_{5})/\bar{N}_{5}]} = \frac{0.01427}{0.00664} = 2.150$$

Group 6:
$$\hat{p}_{61} = \hat{p}_{62} = \hat{p}_{63} = \hat{p}_{64} = 1.0, \ \hat{p}_{6} = 1.0, \ \hat{\bar{N}}_{6} = 25, \ \hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{6j}) = 0.0, \ \hat{\bar{p}}_{6}(1 - \hat{\bar{p}}_{6})/\bar{N}_{6} = 0.0$$

 \hat{K}_{6} is indeterminate and so we take it to be 1.0.

Thus,

$$\hat{\vec{K}} = \frac{\hat{\Sigma} \hat{K}_{i}}{6} = \frac{0.236 + 0.362 + 2.536 + 1.739 + 2.150 + 1.000}{6} = 1.337$$

 \hat{K} is the average adjustment factor which is used to adjust the observed sample sizes to effective sample sizes. The sample sizes are adjusted downward so as to maintain the observed response rates within each tank. The results of the adjustment procedure are presented in Table IX.1. These adjusted values are used as basic input "data" for subsequent analyses. We then proceed as if there is no tank to tank variation within groups. The extrabinomial variation has been accounted for by the adjustment procedure.

TABLE IX.1 EFFECTIVE SAMPLE SIZES AND RESPONSES IN HOLCOMBE AND PHIPPS COMPOUND D FRY MORTALITY DATA AFTER ADJUSTMENT FOR TANK TO TANK HETEROGENEITY

Group		Tank A	Tank B	Tank C	Tank D
1	Dead	1.50	1.50	0.75	0.75
	Live	17.20	17.20	17.95	17.95
	Total	18.70	18.70	18.70	18.70
2	Dead	2.24	0.75	1.50	1.50
	Live	16.45	17.95	17.20	17.20
	Total	18.70	18.70	18.70	18.70
3	Dead	1.50	0.00	3.74	0.75
	Live	17.20	18.70	14.96	17.96
	Total	18.70	18.70	18.70	18.70
4	Dead	2.99	3.74	2.99	0.00
	Live	15.70	17.96	15.70	18.70
	Total	18.70	18.70	18.70	18.70
5	Dead	17.20	15.70	11.97	14.21
	Live	1.50	2.99	6.73	4.49
	Total	18.70	18.70	18.70	18.70
6	Dead	18.70	18.70	18.70	18.70
	Live	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	Total	18.70	18.70	18.70	18.70

We next illustrate the adjustment procedure on the embryo mortality data of Jarvinen for compound B. The preliminary test of tank to tank heterogeneity within treatment groups is highly significant (Z = 2.54, corresponding to an observed significance level of 0.005). This statistical significance is due to group 1 (control) which shows strong tank to tank differences, group 6 which shows a moderate tank to tank difference, and group 3 which shows possible indications — but at best weak statistical evidence — of tank to tank heterogeneity.

In this example J=2, N_{ij} are close to \overline{N}_i (within 1) except for group 2. We will assume here that $N_{ij}=\overline{N}_i$ when calculating K_i 's. This assumption can be refined somewhat, if necessary, to calculate separate adjustment factors for each tank, but we will not do that here. This will await the development of adjustment procedures based on maximum likelihood estimation.

Group 1:
$$\hat{p}_{11} = .235$$
, $\hat{p}_{12} = .04$, $\hat{p}_{1} = 14/101 = 0.138$, $N_{11} = 51$, $N_{12} = 50$, $N_{1} = 50.5$

$$\hat{V}_{ar}(\hat{p}_{ij}) = 0.019$$
 $\hat{p}_{1}(1 - \hat{p}_{1})/\bar{N} = 0.00236$

$$\hat{K}_{1} = \frac{\hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{ij})}{[\hat{p}_{1}(1 - \hat{p}_{1})/\bar{N}_{1}]} = \frac{.019}{.00236} = 8.056$$

Group 2: $\hat{p}_{21} = .105$, $\hat{p}_{22} = .038$, $\hat{\bar{p}}_{2} = 8/109 = .073$, $N_{21} = 57$, $N_{22} = 52$, $\bar{N}_{2} = 54.5$

$$\hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{2j}) = .0022 \qquad \qquad \hat{\bar{p}}_{2}(1 = \hat{\bar{p}}_{2})/\bar{N}_{2} = .00124$$

$$\hat{K}_{2} = \frac{\hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{2j})}{[\hat{\bar{p}}_{2}(1 - \hat{\bar{p}}_{2})/\bar{N}_{2}]} = \frac{.0022}{.00124} = 1.799$$

Group 3:
$$\hat{p}_{31} = .04$$
, $\hat{p}_{32} = 1.4$, $\hat{\bar{p}}_{3} = 9/100 = .09$, $N_{31} = N_{32} = \bar{N}_{3} = 50$
 $\hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{3j}) = .005$ $\hat{\bar{p}}_{3}(1 - \hat{\bar{p}}_{3})/\bar{N}_{3} = .0016$
 $\hat{K}_{3} = \frac{\hat{V}ar(\hat{p}_{3j})}{[\hat{\bar{p}}_{3}(1 - \hat{\bar{p}}_{3})/\bar{N}_{3}]} = \frac{.005}{.0016} = 3.053$

Group 4:
$$\hat{p}_{41} = .02$$
, $\hat{p}_{42} = .021$, $\hat{p}_{4} = 2/98 = .020$, $N_{41} = 50$, $N_{42} = 48$, $N_{4} = 49$

$$\hat{V}_{41} = .02$$
, $\hat{p}_{42} = .021$, $\hat{p}_{43} = .020$, $N_{41} = .00041$

$$\hat{K}_{4} = \frac{\hat{V}_{41}(\hat{p}_{4j})}{\hat{p}_{41}(1 - \hat{p}_{4j})/N} = \frac{3.4 \times 10^{-7}}{.00041} = 8 \times 10^{-4} = 0$$

Group 5:
$$\hat{p}_{51} = .077$$
, $\hat{p}_{52} = .038$, $\hat{\bar{p}}_{5} = 6/105 = .057$, $N_{51} = 52$, $N_{52} = 53$, $\bar{N}_{5} = 52.5$

$$\hat{V}_{ar}(\hat{p}_{5j}) = .00077 \qquad \qquad \hat{\bar{p}}_{5}(1 - \hat{\bar{p}}_{5})/\bar{N}_{5} = .00102$$

$$\hat{K}_{5} = \frac{\hat{V}_{ar}(\hat{p}_{5j})}{[\hat{\bar{p}}_{5}(1 - \hat{\bar{p}}_{5})\bar{N}_{5}]} = \frac{.00077}{.00102} = .750$$

Group 6:
$$\hat{p}_{61} = .02$$
, $\hat{p}_{62} = .137$, $\hat{p}_{6} = 8/101 = .079$, $N_{61} = 50$, $N_{62} = 51$, $N_{6} = 50.5$ $\hat{v}_{ar}(\hat{p}_{6j}) = .00687$ $\hat{p}_{6}(1 - \hat{p}_{6})/N_{6} = .00144$
$$\hat{K}_{6} = \frac{\hat{v}_{ar}(\hat{p}_{6j})}{[\hat{p}_{6}(1 - \hat{p}_{6})/N_{6}]} = \frac{.00687}{.00144} = 4.77$$

Assuming that the relatively high embryo mortality response in group 1 tank 1 is <u>not</u> an outlier and that the inflation in variability is constant across groups, we calculate an <u>average</u> adjustment factor across treatment groups.

Thus,
$$\hat{\vec{K}} = \frac{\hat{i} = 1^{\hat{i}}}{6} = \frac{8.056 + 1.799 + 3.053 + 0 + 0.750 + 4.77}{6} = 3.071$$

 \hat{K} is the average adjustment factor across groups. Alternatively we might use the separate adjustment factors within groups. The results of the adjustment procedure are presented in Table IX.2. These adjusted values can be used as basic input "data" for subsequent analyses. We proceed with further analyses as if there is no tank to tank heterogeneity within groups.

TABLE IX.2 EFFECTIVE SAMPLE SIZES AND RESPONSES IN JARVINEN COMPOUND B EMBRYO MORTALITY DATA AFTER ADJUSTMENT FOR TANK TO TANK HETEROGENEITY

		·		
Group		Tank A	Tank B	
1	Dead	3.91	0.65	
	Live	12.70	15.63	
	Total	16.61	16.28	
2	Dead	1.95	0.65	
	Live	16.61	16.28	
	Total	18.56	16.93	
3	Dead	0.65	2.28	
	Live	15.63	14.00	
	Total	16.28	16.28	
4	Dead	0.33	0.33	
	Live	15.95	15.30	
	Total	16.28	15.63	
5	Dead	1.30	0.65	
	Live	15.63	16.61	
	Total	16.93	17.26	
6	Dead	0.33	2.28	
	Live	15.95	14.33	
	Tota1	16.28	16.61	
				

X. OUTLIER DETECTION PROCEDURES

A. Background

Another preliminary analysis of importance is the detection of responses which do not appear to be in conformance with the substantial majority of responses. Such exceptional responses are often referred to as "outliers". Outlier detection procedures are used to decide how extreme a response must be in order to rule out the possibility that its value is reasonably likely to be due just to random variation. Consider for example the percentage embryo mortality responses from DeFoe's test on compound C that are displayed in Figure VI.1. We remarked that the mortality rate in group 2, tank A appears to be widely separated from the others. Can such a separation be explained by random variation or is there some systematic factor peculiar to this tank? Similarly, the percentage embryo mortality observed in group 1, tank A in Jarvinen's test on compound B is widely separated from the other responses. Can a separation of this magnitude be reasonably explained by random variation or is there some systematic factor peculiar to this tank?

Barnett and Lewis [23] describe a wide class of outlier detection procedures, to screen out those extreme responses that cannot be reasonably attributed to random variation. They include a procedure appropriate for binomial responses (section 3.4, pp 122-124). Their procedure is based on the assumption of n independent responses X_1, \ldots, X_n , each binomially distributed with parameters m and p. They base their outlier test on the exact conditional distribution of $\max X_i$ given $\Sigma_i X_i$. In our data n represents the number of tanks per group, m is the number of embryos or fry per tank (assumed to be equal from tank to tank), and X; is the number of responses (e.g. dead embryos) per tank. Their tabulation, Table XIX (pp 320-322) includes only the range of values $n \ge 3$, $m \ge 10$, $X_{(n)} = m$, m - 1, m - 2. This is quite inadequate for the ranges of parameters and responses that arise in toxicity tests. Thus their exact conditional test is not too useful for our needs.

Barnett and Lewis state, on page 123, that an alternative, approximate approach to outlier detection in the binomial case is to transform $\{X_j/m\}$ using the arc sine transformation and then apply normal theory based procedures to these transformed values. This approach, and variants on it, are in the spirit of the methods that we recommend in the remainder of this section. We consider both graphical and numerical procedures.

The theoretical bases of our suggested methods are discussed in Appendix AX.

B. Application of Outlier Detection Procedures to Fish Toxicity Data

We apply the transformations discussed in Appendix AX to construct graphical outlier detection procedures based on normal probability plotting techniques and associated formal outlier detection tests. We apply these procedures to the following situations:

DeFoe: compound C
embryo mortality data
fry mortality data

Holcombe and Phipps: Compound D embryo mortality data fry mortality data

Jarvinen: compound B embryo mortality data

DeFoe compound C

$$I = 6, J = 2$$

(i.e. 6 groups, 2 tanks per group).

Embryo Mortality

Group 1	$\hat{p} = .41; all$	expected	frequencies	are	greater	than	5.
Group 2	$\hat{p} = .51; all$	expected	frequencies	are	greater	than	5.
Group 3	$\hat{p} = .37; a11$	expected	frequencies	are	greater	than	5.
Group 4	$\hat{p} = .37; a11$	expected	frequencies	are	greater	than	5.
Group 5	$\hat{p} = .39; a11$	expected	frequencies	are	greater	than	5.
Group 6	$\hat{p} = .38; a11$	expected	frequencies	are	greater	than	5.

We apply the transformation suggested in case 1. Data summaries are given below.

Calculate
$$\left(1 - \frac{N_j}{N}\right)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{X_j - N_j \hat{p}}{\sqrt{N_j \hat{p} \hat{q}}}\right)$$
 for each tank within each group.

		x _j	^N j	Ŷ	N j ^ĝ	$\left(N_{j}\hat{p}\hat{q}\right)^{1/2}$	n _j /n	$\left(1 - \frac{N_{j}}{N}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{X_{j} - N_{j}\hat{p}}{\sqrt{N_{j}\hat{p}\hat{q}}}\right)$
Group	1							
Tank Tank		22 19	50 50	0.41 0.41	20.5 20.5	3.478 3.478	.50 .50	.610 610
Group	2							
Tank Tank		32 19	50 50	0.51 0.51	25.5 25.5	3.535 3.535	.50 .50	2.600 -2.600
Group	3							
Tank Tank		20 17	50 50	0.37 0.37	18.5 18.5	3.414 3.414	.50 .50	0.621 -0.621
Group	4							
Tank Tank		16 21	50 50	0.37 0.37	18.5 18.5	3.414 3.414	.50 .50	-1.036 1.036
Group	5							
Tank Tank		22 17	50 50	0.39 0.39	19.5 19.5	3.449 3.449	.50 .50	1.025 -1.025
Group	6							
Tank Tank		19 19	50 50	0.38 0.38	19.0 19.0	3.432 3.432	.50 .50	0 0

To prepare the normal probability plot we order the standardized values and plot the i-th smallest against the plotting position 100 x (i-0.5)/12 on the probability scale. These values are indicated below.

i	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ordered Value	-2.600	-1.036	-1.025	-0.621	-0.610	0
Plotting Position	4.2	12.5	20.8	29.2	37.5	45.8
i	7	8	9	10	11	12
Ordered Value	0	0.610	0.621	1.025	1.036	2.600
Plotting Position	54.2	62.5	70.8	79.2	87.5	95.8

The normal probability plot of these points is shown in Figure X.1. The plot appears perfectly symmetrical about 0 since J=2 and so the responses within groups have correlation -1.0. The effective sample size is thus 6(J-1)=6(2-1)=6 independent observations. The reference line in the plot is the standard normal distribution function. If the response rates are homogeneous within groups then the standardized values should lie near this line. If there is extrabinomial variation in the data, that is random tank to tank variation within groups, then the points should lie along a line or a curve with steeper slope than the standard distribution function. If there are outlying responses in the data then they should be far removed from the line or curve that typifies the bulk of the data. This latter situation is seen to be the case. The bulk of the data lie very nicely along the standard normal c.d.f. line. The values corresponding to group 2 are far removed from this line.

To determine the extent of statistical evidence that the apparent outliers did not occur just due to chance we calculate the probability that the maximum absolute value of six independent standard normal random variables exceeds 2.600. More precisely let Z_1, Z_2, \ldots, Z_6 be six independent standard normal random variables. Then

$$P[j=1, \max_{j=1}^{max}, 6 \mid Z_{j} \mid \geq 2.600] = P[at least one \mid Z_{j} \mid \geq 2.600]$$

= 1 - $P[all \mid Z_{j} \mid \leq 2.600] = 1 - \{P[\mid Z_{j} \mid \leq 2.600]\}^{6} = 1 - (.9907)^{6}$
= 0.055

This is of borderline statistical significance. We can thus infer that based on this test there is marginal statistical evidence that group 2 contains an outlying tank.

The appearance of Figure VI.1 suggests that the response from Tank 2A is more than a marginal outlier. We can increase the sensitivity of the above outlier test by incorporating additional information. If we assume that there is no trend in response rates across groups then we can estimate the response rate based on all 12 tanks and can ignore the correction factor $(1-N_j/N)^{-1/2}$. In general this assumption will not hold but it seems reasonable in this example based on the appearance of Figure VI.1 and on toxicological considerations (i.e. relatively little penetration of chemical into the embryo). The value of \hat{p} based on 12 tanks is 243/600 = 0.405. The largest standardized value is that from Tank 2A, namely

$$Z = \frac{32 - (50)(.405)}{[50(.405)(.595)]^{1/2}} = 3.385$$

What is the probability that the most extreme of 11 independent standard normal random variable exceeds 3.385 in absolute value?

$$P[_{j=1,...12}^{max} | Z_j | \ge 3.385] = 1 - \{P[|Z_1| \le 3.385\}^{11} = 1 - (.9997)^{11} = 0.003$$

We can thus infer that, with the additional assumption of no trend in response with increasing treatment level, there is strong statistical evidence that the response rate in Tank 2A is an outlying value.

Note that just because the Tank 2A response is an outlier does not in and of itself mean that the data should be discarded or disregarded. Rather, the investigator needs to reexamine the records for this tank to determine the reason for the atypical response. If it is due to clerical error, to experimental mishap, to outbreak of a disease unrelated to the toxicant, etc then perhaps the Tank 2A response is inappropriate and should be disregarded. If it represents normal biological variation then the response should be considered with the others. This is a matter for biological judgement. Outlier detection procedures are merely screening devices to direct attention to those places where such biological judgement need be applied.

DeFoe compound C - Fry mortality

```
Group 1 \hat{p} = 0;

Group 2 \hat{p} = 0;

Group 3 \hat{p} = 0.05;

Group 4 \hat{p} = 0.024;

Group 5 \hat{p} = 0.225; expected frequencies less than 5 in both tanks

Group 6 \hat{p} = 1.00 (\hat{q} = 0);
```

Thus groups 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 correspond to the Poisson case 2. (In group 6 we interchange the roles of p and q). Group 5 corresponds to case 3.

For all groups but 5 we calculate $\left(1-\frac{N_j}{N}\right)^{-1/2}$ $2\left[\sqrt{X_j}-\sqrt{N_j\hat{p}}\right]$. For group 5 we carry out an arc sine transformation

	Хj	Ŋ	p	Ŋjp̂	N _j /N	$\left(1 - N_{j}/N\right)^{-1/2} 2\left[\sqrt{X_{j}} - \sqrt{N_{j}\beta}\right]$
Group 1						
Tank A Tank B	0 0	20 20	0 0	0 0	.50 .50	0 0
Group 2						
Tank A Tank B	0	20 20	0 0	0	.50 .50	0 0
Group 3						
Tank A Tank B	0 2	20 20	.05 .05	1.0 1.0	.50 .50	-2.828 1.172
Group 4						
Tank A Tank B	0 1	21 20	.024	0.512 0.488		
	x _j	Ŋ	ĝ	М _ј q̂	N _j /N	$\left(1 - N_{j}/N\right)^{1/2} 2\left[\sqrt{X_{j}} - \sqrt{N_{j}\hat{q}}\right]$
Group 6						
Tank A Tank B	0 0	20 20	0 0	0	.50 .50	0 0
	x _j	^N j	ĝ	N _j ĝ	n _j /n p̂ _j	$ \left(1 - N_{j}/N\right)^{-1/2} 2\sqrt{N_{j}} \left[\arcsin\sqrt{\widehat{p}_{j}} - \arcsin\sqrt{\widehat{p}_{j}}\right] $ arcsin $\sqrt{\widehat{p}_{j}}$
Group 5						
Tank A Tank B	4 5	20 20	0.225 0.225	4.5 4.5	0.50 0. 0.50 0.	

To prepare the normal probability plot we order the standardized values and plot the i-th smallest against the plotting position $100 \times (i-0.5)/12$ on the probability scale. These values are indicated below.

i	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Ordered Value	-2.828	-2.049	-0.387	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Plotting Position	4.2	12.5	20.8	29.2	37.5	45.8	54.2	62.5	70.8	

i	10	11	12		
Ordered Value	0.372	0.843	1.172		
Plotting Position	79.2	87.5	95.8		

The normal probability plot of these points appears in Figure X.2. We note two points well below the standard N(0, 1) line. These points correspond to Tanks 3A, 4A. Both correspond to frequencies of 0, where the normal approximation is least reasonable. Furthermore, their companion tanks do <u>not</u> show up as outliers. Thus before we say there is an outlier, we should compare the proportions in the two replicate tanks to see if there is any statistical evidence of differences.

There is <u>an exact</u> test for the equality of two Poisson means. Nelson [24] discusses this test in detail.

In order to use this test for detecting outlier tanks we need to test a slightly more general hypothesis. Namely consider the 2×2 table.

Replicate

A B

Live X Y

Dead

NA NB N

If
$$\frac{X}{N_A}$$
 <.1, $\frac{Y}{N_B}$ <.1 or if $\frac{X}{N_A}$ >.9, $\frac{Y}{N_B}$ >.9 then we're in the Poisson case.

Now
$$\lambda_A = N_A P_A$$
, $\lambda_B = N_B P_B$ implies that if $P_A = P_B$ then $\lambda_A / \lambda_B = N_A / N_B$.

We thus wish to test the hypothesis

$$H_o: \frac{\lambda_A}{\lambda_B} = \rho$$
 where $\rho = \frac{N_A}{N_B}$

Nelson's test rejects ${\tt H}_{o}$ at level α if

$$\frac{Y}{X+1} \ge \frac{1}{\rho} F(2X + 2, 2Y; 1 - \alpha/2)$$

or if

$$\frac{Y+1}{X} \le \frac{1}{\rho} F(2X, 2Y + 2; \alpha/2) = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{1}{F(2Y + 2, 2X; 1 - \alpha/2)}$$

where $F(\nu_1, \nu_2; \gamma)$ represents the upper γ point of the F c.d.f. with ν_1 , ν_2 degrees of freedom. If $\gamma = 0$, $\gamma > 0$ we can only carry out the one sided test. (We have just one sided information concerning λ_B).

$$H_o: \lambda_A/\lambda_B = \rho$$
 vs $H_1: \lambda_A/\lambda_B > \rho$

Nelson's test rejects H_o at level α if $X \ge \rho F(2, 2X; 1 - \alpha)$.

We now apply this Poisson test to the outlier detection problem. Consider groups 3, 4. These give rise to the two extreme points on the plot:-2.828, -2.049. Let us see if these should be regarded as outliers.

Replicate

In Group 3 we have A B

Dead 0 2 2

Live 20 18 38

Thus
$$X = 0$$
 $X \sim P_o(\lambda_A) \equiv P_o(20p_A)$
 $Y = 2$ $Y \sim P_o(\lambda_B) \equiv P_o(20p_B)$

Since X = 0, we can carry out only a one sided test. Note that ρ = 1.

$$H_0: \lambda_B = \lambda_A$$
 $H_1: \lambda_B > \lambda_A$

We reject H_0 at level α if $Y > F(2, 2Y; 1 - \alpha)$. In our example Y = 2. The critical value, F(2, 4; .95) is 6.94, which exceeds 2. There

is thus no statistical evidence of differences among the two responses in group 3. Thus Tank 3 A is \underline{not} an outlier.

We now carry out the test for group 4. The situation is less extreme than that in group 3, however we go through with the test for illustrative purposes.

Replicate

In Group 4 we have

Dead Live

A	В	
0	1	1
21	19	40
21	20	41

Thus
$$X = 0$$
 $X \sim P_o(\lambda_A) \equiv P_o(21p_A)$

$$Y = 1$$
 $Y \sim P_o(\lambda_B) \equiv P_o(20p_B)$

Since X = 0, we can carry out only a one sided test.

$$H_0: \frac{\lambda_B}{\lambda_A} = \frac{N_B}{N_A} = \frac{20}{21} = 0.952 = \rho.$$
 $H_1: \frac{\lambda_B}{\lambda_A} > 0.952$

From our previous discussion (interchanging the roles of X and Y)

reject H_o if Y
$$\geq \rho$$
 F(2, 2Y; .95) = $\frac{N_B}{N_A}$ F(2, 2Y; .95) = .952F(2, 2Y; .95)

In our case Y = 1, .952F(2, 2Y; .95) = (.952)(19.0) = 18.088

Thus we cannot reject H . There is no statistical evidence of differences in response rates among the tanks.

Thus tank 4A is not an outlier.

Holcombe and Phipps compound D

Embryo Mortality

I = 6, J = 4

(i.e. 6 groups, 4 tanks per group)

Embryo mortality

Group 1 \hat{p} = 0.35; all expected frequencies greater than 5. Group 2 \hat{p} = 0.35; all expected frequencies greater than 5. Group 3 \hat{p} = 0.315; all expected frequencies greater than 5. Group 4 \hat{p} = 0.39; all expected frequencies greater than 5. Group 5 \hat{p} = 0.335; all expected frequencies greater than 5. Group 6 \hat{p} = 0.38; all expected frequencies greater than 5.

We apply the transformation suggested in case 1. Data summaries are given below.

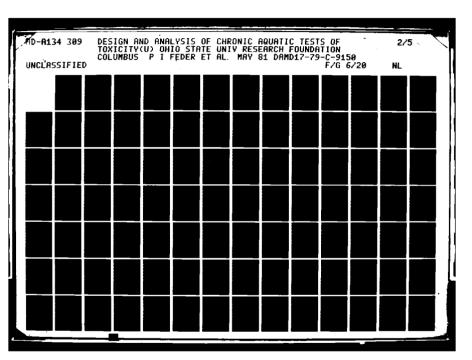
Calculate $\left(1 - \frac{N_j}{N}\right)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{X_j - N_j \hat{p}}{\sqrt{N_j \hat{p} \hat{q}}}\right)$ for each tank within each group.

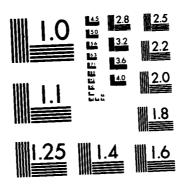
	x _j	Иj	ĝ	Ŋjp̂	√N _j p̂q̂	N _j /N	$ \left(1 - N_{j}/N\right)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{X_{j} - N_{j}\hat{p}}{\sqrt{N_{j}\hat{p}\hat{q}}}\right)^{-1/2} $
Group 1							
Tank A Tank B Tank C Tank D	17 21 12 20	50 50 50 50	0.35 0.35 0.35 0.35	17.5 17.5 17.5 17.5	3.373 3.373 3.373 3.373	0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25	-0.171 1.198 -1.883 0.856
Group 2							
Tank A Tank B Tank C Tank D	19 14 16 21	50 50 50 50	0.35 0.35 0.35 0.35	17.5 17.5 17.5 17.5	3.373 3.373 3.373 3.373	0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25	0.514 -1.198 -0.514 1.198
Group 3							
Tank A Tank B Tank C Tank D	15 12 24 12	50 50 50 50	0.315 0.315 0.315 0.315	15.75 15.75 15.75 15.75	3.293 3.293 3.293 3.293	0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25	-0.263 -1.315 2.893 -1.315

	x _j	N j	ŷ 	N _j p̂	N pq	√N _j /N	$ \left(1 - N_{j}/N\right)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{X_{j} - N_{j}\hat{p}}{\sqrt{N_{j}\hat{p}\hat{q}}}\right) $
Group 4							
Tank A Tank B Tank C Tank D	20 21 23 14	50 50 50 50	0.39 0.39 0.39 0.39	19.5 19.5 19.5 19.5	3.449 3.449 3.449 3.449	0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25	0.167 0.502 1.172 -1.841
Group 5							
Tank A Tank B Tank C Tank D	18 19 14 16	50 50 50 50	0.335 0.335 0.335 0.335	16.75 16.75 16.75 16.75	3.337 3.337 3.337 3.337	0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25	0.433 0.779 -0.952 -0.260
Group 6							
Tank A Tank B Tank C Tank D	14 16 25 21	50 50 50 50	0.38 0.38 0.38 0.38	19.0 19.0 19.0 19.0	3.432 3.432 3.432 3.432	0.25 0.25 0.25 0.25	-1.682 -1.009 2.019 0.673

To prepare the normal probability plot we order the standardized values and plot the i-th smallest against the plotting position $100~\mathrm{x}$ (1 - 0.5)/24 on the probability scale. These values are indicated below

i	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Ordered Value	-1.883	-1.841	-1.682	-1.315	-1.315	-1.198	-1.009	-0.952
Plotting Position	3 2.1	6.2	10.4	14.6	18.7	22.9	27.1	31.2
i	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Ordered Value	-0.514	-0.263	-0.260	0.171	0.167	0.433	0.502	0.514
Plotting Position	5 33.4	39.6	43.7	47.9	52.1	56.2	60.4	64.6





MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

i	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
Ordered Value	0.673	0.779	0.856	1.172	1.198	1.198	2.019	2.893
Plotting Position	68.7	72.9	77.1	81.2	85.4	89.6	93.7	97.9

The normal probability plot of these points is shown in Figure X.3. Due to the within group correlation, the effective sample size is 6(J-1)=6(4-1)=18 independent observations. Is the Group 3, Tank C response an outlier? To determine the extent of statistical evidence that the apparent outlier did not occur just due to chance we calculate the probability that the maximum absolute value of 18 independent standard normal random variables does not exceed 2.893. Let Z_1, Z_2, \ldots, Z_{18} be 18 independent standard normal random variables.

$$P[\max_{j=1,...18} |Z_j| \ge 2.893] = 1 - P[all |Z_j| \le 2.893] = 1 - (.9962)^{18}$$

= 0.066.

This is of borderline statistical significance. We can thus infer that there is marginal statistical evidence that Group 3 contain an outlying tank.

Note that from the scatter plot of embryo mortality vs treatment in Figure VI.5. It is clear that there is no trend in the data and that the Tank 3C response does not stand out from those of the six groups as a whole. If we knew that there was no trend over groups we could construct a more powerful test by pooling all the tanks and calculating a common \hat{p} . However there is no point in doing this since we see from the scatter plot that Tank 3C is not out of line with respect to the pooled responses, but rather just with those in Group 3. The reason for this, if any, might be pursued.

Holcombe and Phipps compound D

$$I = 6$$
, $J = 4$ (i.e. 6 groups, 4 tanks per group)

Fry Mortality

Group 1 $\hat{p} = 0.06$ Group 2 $\hat{p} = 0.08$

Group 3 $\hat{p} = 0.08$

Group 4 $\hat{p} = 0.13$; expected frequencies less than 5 in each tank.

Group 5 $\hat{p} = 0.79$; all expected frequencies greater than 5.

Group 6 $\hat{p} = 1.00 (\hat{q} = 0)$.

Thus groups 1, 2, 3, 6 correspond to Poisson case 2. Group 4 corresponds to case 3 (possibly to case 2). Group 5 corresponds to case 1.

Thus for groups 1, 2, 3, we calculate
$$(1 - N_{j}/N)^{-1/2} \quad 2 \left[\sqrt{X_{j}} - \sqrt{N_{j} \hat{p}} \right].$$
 For group 6 we calculate
$$(1 - N_{j}/N)^{-1/2} \quad 2 \left[\sqrt{N_{j} - X_{j}} - \sqrt{N_{j} \hat{q}} \right].$$
 For group 4 we calculate
$$(1 - N_{j}/N)^{-1/2} \quad 2 \sqrt{N_{j}} \left[\arcsin \sqrt{\hat{p}_{j}} - \arcsin \sqrt{\hat{p}_{j}} \right].$$
 For group 5 we calculate
$$(1 - N_{j}/N)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{X_{j} - N_{j} \hat{p}}{\sqrt{N_{j} \hat{p} \hat{q}}} \right)$$

	X j	Ŋ	Ŷ	Ŋ _j ĝ	N _j /N	$ \left(1 - N_{j}/N\right)^{-1/2} 2\left[\sqrt{X_{j}} - \sqrt{N_{j}\hat{p}}\right] $
Group 1						
Tank A	2	25	.06	1.5	.25	0.438
Tank B	2	25	.06	1.5	.25	0.438
Tank C	1	25	.06	1.5	.25	-0.519
Tank D	1	25	.06	1.5	.25	-0.519
Group 2						
Tank A	3	25	.08	2.0	.25	0.734
Tank B	1	25	.08	2.0	.25	-0.957
Tank C	2	25	.08	2.0	. 25	0
Tank D	2	25	.08	2.0	.25	0
Group 3						
Tank A	2	25	.08	2.0	.25	0
Tank B	0	25	.08	2.0	.25	-3.266
Tank C	5	25	.08	2.0	.25	1.898
Tank D	1	25	.08	2.0	.25	-0.957

						($(1 - N_j/N)^{-1/2} 2\sqrt{N_j} a$	ırcsin√p̂j-
	X,	i N	ĝ	Ŋjp	n,n	ŷ	· a	ırcsin√p dire
Group 4	4				-			
Tank I Tank I Tank (Tank I	B 5	25 25	.13 .13 .13	3.25 3.25 3.25 3.25	.25 .25 .25	.16 .20 .16 0	.493 1.094 .493 -4.259	
	x	i ^N	Ŷ	М _ј ф	n _j /n	√N jêq̂	$\left(1 - N_{j}/N\right)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{X_{j}}{\sqrt{N_{j}}}\right)$	$\frac{-N_{j}\hat{p}}{\widehat{p}\hat{q}}$
Group 5	<u>-</u>							
Tank A Tank I Tank (Tank I	3 21 2 16	25 25	.79 .79 .79 .79	19.75 19.75 19.75 19.75	.25 .25 .25 .25	2.037 2.037 2.037 2.037	1.842 0.709 2.126 425	
	N	j ^{-X} j	и _j ĝ	n _j q n _j	/N (1	- n _j /n)	$^{-1/2} 2 \left[\sqrt{N_j - X_j} - \sqrt{N_j \hat{q}} \right]$]
Group 6	<u>5</u>							
Tank A Tank I Tank (Tank I	3	0 0 0 0	25 0 25 0 25 0 25 0	0 .2 0 .2 0 .2 0 .2	5 5		0 0 0 0	

To prepare the normal probability plot we order the standardized values and plot the i-th smallest against the plotting position $100~\mathrm{x}$ (i - 0.5)/24 on the probability scale. These values are indicated below.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ordered Value	-4.259	-3.266	-2.126	-0.957	-0.957	-0.519	-0.519	_
Plotting Position	2.1	6.2	10.4	14.6	18.7	22.9	27.1	

	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
Ordered Value	-0.425	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.438	
Plotting Position	31.2	35.4	39.6	43.7	47.9	52.1	56.2	60.4	64.6	

	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
Ordered Value	0.438	0.493	0.493	0.709	0.734	1.094	1.842	1.898
Plotting Position	68.7	72.9	77.1	81.2	85.4	89.6	93.7	97.9

The normal probability plot appears in Figure X.4. It appears that the lowest 3 points are well below the N(0, 1) line. These three points correspond to Tanks 4D, 3B, 5C. Tanks 4D, 3B each have observed frequencies of 0. This is the region where the normal approximation is the poorest. Thus before we say that there are any outliers, we should compare the tanks within the treatment groups using a more appropriate exact test.

First let's look at tank 3B.

Group 3:

	Replicate									
A B C D										
Dead	2	0	5	1	8					
Live	23	25	20	24	92					
	25	25	25	25	100					

Tank 3 B is the suspected outlier. Let's compare its results to those in the other 3 tanks.

Replicate

	В	A, C, D	
Dead	0	8	8
Live	25	67	92
·	25	75	100

We can carry out an exact test by means of the Fisher - Irwin test. (See Lehmann [25], section 4.5, Lieberman and Owen [26]).

To carry out the Fisher - Irwin test we adopt the following notational identifications for the table.

	Grp 1	Grp 2	
Spec.	x		k
Ordin.			K - k
	n	N - n	N

Where

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k < N - k, n < N - n, k < n.

i.e. k is the smallest marginal entry

n is the smallest marginal entry in the other margin.

X is the cell entry in the cell corresponding to the (n, k) marginal categories.

In our example

_	<u> </u>	A, C, D		
Dead	x = 0	8	8 = k	("special")
Live	25	67	92	
	25	75	100 = N	
•	" D			

Thus k=8, n=25, N=100, X=x=0. We enter the Lieberman and Owen hypergeometric distribution tables at these parameters. We obtain $P(X \le 0) = 0.091$. Thus a two sided probability is 0.182. This is quite marginal, at most.

Now group B was not chosen a priori, but rather as the most extreme of the 4 responses. Thus to get a feeling for how extreme this behavior is we carry out the following approximate calculation. P(most extreme of 4 independent responses is more significant than 0.182 level) = 1 - P (all 4 responses less significant than 0.182 level) = $1 - (1 - 0.182)^4$ = 0.55. We thus conclude that there is no statistical evidence that the response rate in Tank 3B differs significantly from the responses rates in the other tanks in that group. We conclude that the extreme behavior of the standardized value is due to the inapplicability of the normalizing square root transformation when $X_i = 0$.

We now consider the responses in Group 4.

Group 4

Replicate

	A	В	С	D	
Dead	4	5	4	0	13
Live	21	20	21	25	87
	25	25	25	25	100

Tank 4D is the suspected outlier. Let's compare its results to those in the other 3 tanks.

	D	A, B, C	
Dead	0 = x	13	13 = k
Live	25	62	87
	25 "	75	100 = N

Thus here k = 13, n = 25, N = 100, X = x = 0.

Entering the Lieberman and Owen tables we find that $P(X \le 0) = 0.018$ this is a one sided probability

Thus the observed two sided significance level = 2(0.018) = 0.036

Now tank D was not chosen a priori. Taking selection into account we have P (most extreme of 4 tanks more significant than 0.036 level) = 1 - P (all 4 tanks less significant than 0.036 level) = $1 - (1 - .036)^4 = 0.14$.

There is thus at most a marginal suggestion that the response rate in Tank 4D differs significantly from the response rates in the other tanks in that group. The very extreme appearance of the standardized value on the normal probability plot is again due to the inapplicability of the normalizing transformation when $X_i = 0$.

We now consider the responses in Group 5.

Group 5	Replicate					
	A	В	С	D		
Dead	23	21	16	19	79	
Live	2	4	9	6	21	
	25	25	25	25	100	

Tank 5C is the suspected outlier. Let's compare its results to those in the other three tanks.

	С	A, B, D	1	_			
Dead	16	63	79				
Live	9 = x	12	21	=	k	$n\hat{p} = 5.3$	25
	25	75	100	_	N		
	u n						

In this case the "special" category is "live". Thus k=21, n=25, N=100, X=x=9. Entering the Lieberman and Owen tables we find that

$$P(X \ge 9) = 1 - P(X \le 8) = 1 - .9638 = .0362.$$

Thus the two sided significance probability is 2(.0362) = .0724. This is at best marginal. Now tank D was not chosen a priori. Taking selection into account, we have

P (most extreme of 4 tanks most significant than .0724 level) = $1 - (1 - .0724)^4 = .260$

Thus tank D is not significantly different than the others. Since the expected frequencies are fairly large in this example we can also carry out an asymptotic test.

_	С	A, B, D	
Dead	16 (19.65)	63 (59.25)	79
Live	9 (5.25)	12 (15.75)	21
=	25	75	100

Expected frequencies are in parentheses.

$$\chi^{2} = \sum \frac{(0 - E)^{2}}{E} = \frac{(16 - 19.75)^{2}}{19.75} + \frac{(63 - 59.25)^{2}}{59.25} + \frac{(9 - 5.25)^{2}}{5.25} + \frac{(12 - 15.75)^{2}}{15.75}$$
Thus $\chi^{2} = 4.53$

Under the hypothesis of homogeneity, χ^2 is distributed as χ^2_1 .

Thus χ^2 is significant at the 0.033 level, in close agreement with the results based on the Fisher - Irwin test, namely lack of statistical evidence of differences when selection is accounted for.

Since the normalizing transformation is appropriate for the range of responses in Group 5, we can also regard the normalized value from Tank C, -2.126, as the minimum of $6 \times (4-1) - 2 = 16$ standard normal deviates (we disregard those responses corresponding to Tanks 3B, 4D). The probability that a standard normal deviate is less than -2.126 is 0.017. The probability that the minimum of 22 independent standard normal deviates is less than -2.126 is thus $1 - (1 - 0.017)^{16} = 0.25$. Again there is no statistical evidence that this value is an outlier.

Jarvinen compound B

$$I = 6$$
, $J = 2$ (i.e. 6 groups, 2 tank per group)

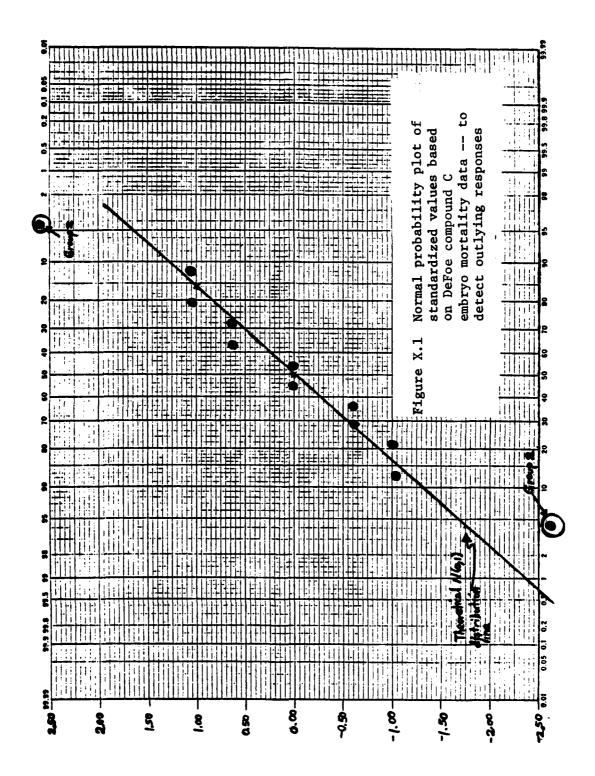
Embryo Mortality

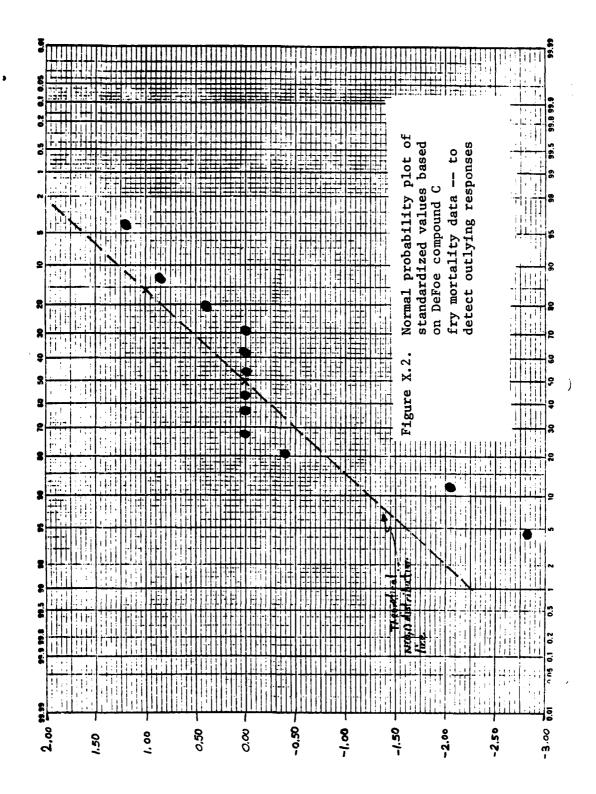
The normal probability plot of standardized values (based on the case 1 transformation) is shown in Figure X.5. The plot appears perfectly symmetric about 0 since J=2. The effective sample size is 6(J-1)=6 independent observations. The reference line in the plot is the standard normal distribution function.

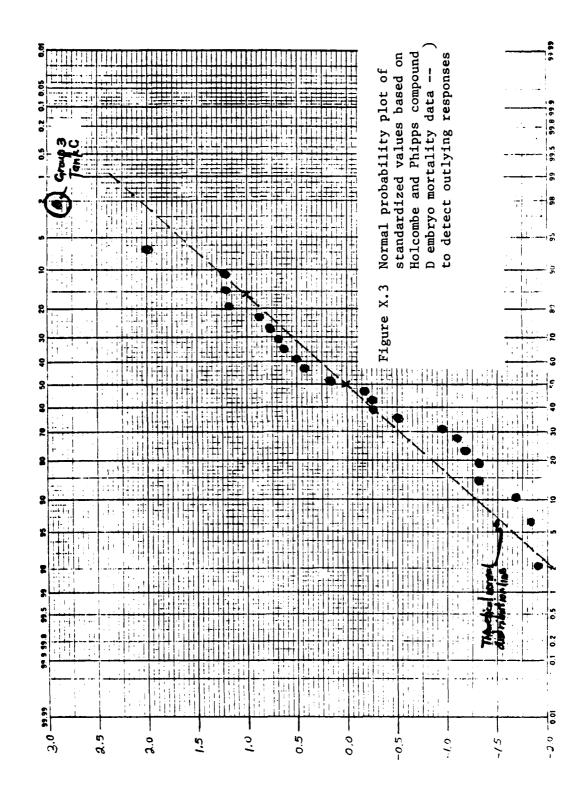
The behavior of the plot suggests the presence of extrabinomial variation (i.e. random tank to tank variation within groups) in the data rather than outliers. This is seen by the fact that the points lie along a curve with steeper slope than that of the standard normal distribution

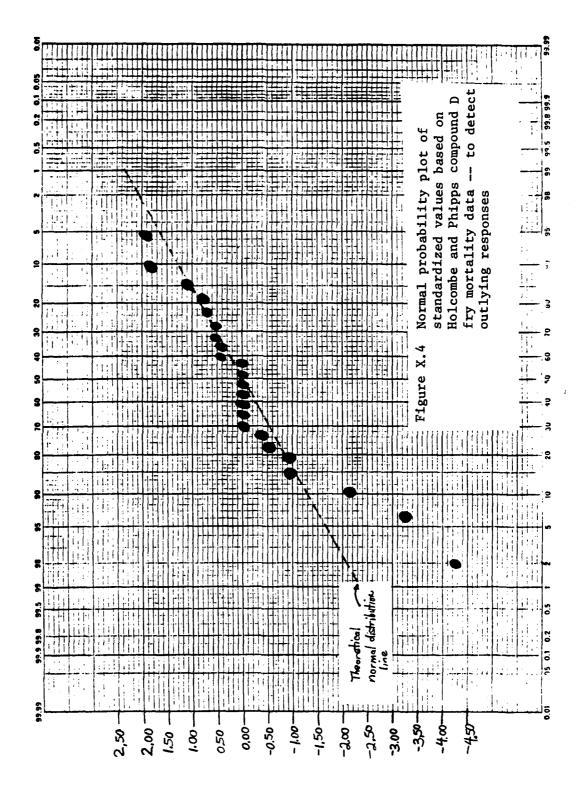
function. The extreme points are <u>not</u> outliers since they lie directly on the curve determined by the other values. Thus the conjecture made in section VIII concerning the presence of outliers is <u>not</u> borne out. Note that this behavior is directly opposite to that observed in Figure X.1.

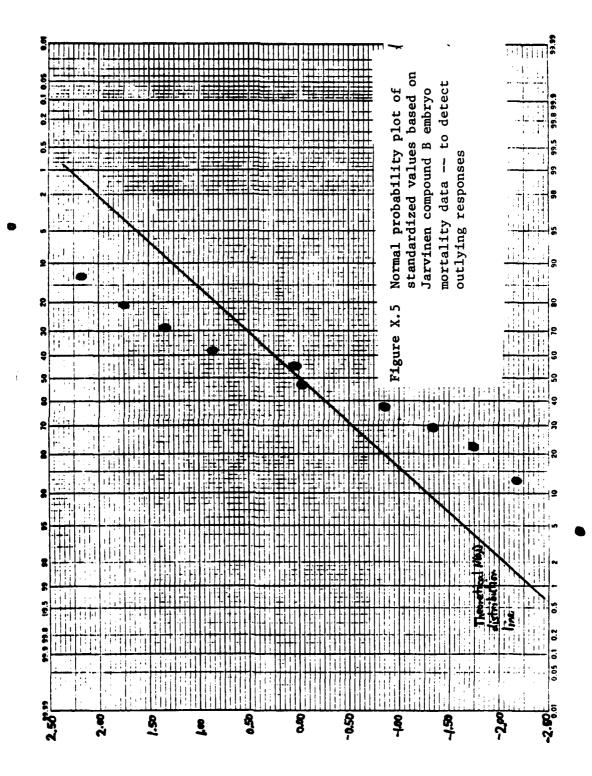
If we draw a line through the plotted points in Figure X.5 the estimated standard deviation (corresponding to the difference between the 84th and 50th percentiles) is about 1.7. Thus the estimated variance is $(1.7)^2 = 2.9$. This values is very close to the factor K = 3.07 that we utilized in section IX to adjust these data.











XI. TESTING FOR CONCENTRATION RELATED EFFECTS

A. Background

After we have completed preliminary graphical displays, tests for tank to tank heterogeneity, and outlier detection procedures we are ready to proceed to the main portion of the data analysis. This involves comparing responses across treatment groups to arrive at an inference about what constitutes an "acceptable" concentration. If no tank to tank heterogeneity is evident in the data then the original data may be pooled across tanks within groups and subsequent analyses carried out on a per fish basis or alternatively the data can first be adjusted to reflect the increased variation and the adjusted "data" can be pooled across tanks and analyzed on a per fish basis. As remarked earlier, we prefer the latter approach.

Before considering statistical procedures to determine acceptable concentrations, we must first define what is considered to be acceptable. According to the guidelines for early life stage tests, [8], "...A lower chronic endpoint is the highest tested concentration...which did not cause the occurrence (which was statistically significantly different from the control at the 95% level) of any specified adverse effect and below which no tested concentration caused such an occurrence...An upper chronic endpoint is the lowest rested concentration...which caused the occurrence (which was statistically significantly different from the control at the 95% level) of any specified adverse effect and above which all tested concentrations caused such an occurence". We are thus interested in determining which concentrations yield (statistically) significantly different results than the control group. In a later section we will present an alternative notion of acceptable concentration.

Opinion: For the purpose of testing hypotheses concerning heterogeneity of response rates across groups or of constructing confidence intervals to compare treatment group and control group response rates, unless there is relatively strong statistical evidence of heterogeneity among tanks within groups (e.g. observed significance level less than 0.05 or 0.10) then act as if there is not heterogeneity of response from tank to tank within groups. Base subsequent tests and confidence intervals on the original (i.e. unadjusted) data, pooled across tanks within groups.

This suggestion reflects a <u>conservative</u> viewpoint with respect to the conclusions drawn from such subsequent analyses.

Namely, suppose that such tank to tank variation within treatment groups exists but we do not detect it. Then we proceed as

if none exists. Thus the "true" variability of the test statistics that we use will exceed the assumed variability. Thus if we carry out a test at nominal level $\alpha = 0.05$, say, the "true" alpha level will in fact be greater than the nominal.

Inflating the actual α - level over the nominal level makes the test more prone to reject the hypothesis of equality of treatment and control groups than an actual α - level test. Thus if we err, it will be on the side of declaring a treatment group significantly different from the control group when it in fact is not. This is conservative.

Carrying out analyses on a per tank basis drastically reduces the degrees of freedom available for estimating variability of the test statistics, especially when there are very few tanks per treatment group. This diminishes the power of subsequent tests to compare treatment groups with control group, thus causing acceptance of the null hypothesis more often than necessary when it is false. That is, suppose there is little or no tank to tank heterogeneity within groups but we still carry out our analyses on a per tank basis "to be safe". Then the reduced power of the procedures based on per tank analyses will cause us to miss moderate differences between treatment groups and control groups that we might be able to detect if we were analyzing on a per fish basis. Thus we would be erring on the side of failing to detect departures from the control group response rates. This is unconservative.

It should be noted that exactly the <u>opposite</u> is true when we fit dose response curves to the data. Namely underestimation of variability results in an <u>increased lower bound on safe concent-ration</u>, which is <u>unconservative</u>. Thus for the purpose of fitting dose response curves perhaps we should adjust for tank to tank heterogeneity if the overall significance level is as great as $\alpha = .20$ or perhaps even $\alpha = .50$.

B. Chi Square Test of Homogeneity Across Treatment Groups

The most commonly used overall test for differences in mortality or abnormality rates across treatment groups is the chi square test for homogeneity. It is analagous to the shotgun analysis of variance F test for quantitative data. Since the preliminary tank to tank heterogeneity tests on the DeFoe and on the Holcombe and Phipps data sets were at most marginal, we use the original data. However the same test could be applied after adjusting the data.

Let p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_I denote the response probabilities in the I (treatment and control) groups. We wish to test the hypothesis

$$H_0: p_1 = p_2 = \dots = p_1.$$

The chi square test is an <u>overall</u> test of this hypothesis (i.e. a shotgun test). It is based on the following statistic:

Let (X_{ij}, N_{ij}) denote the number of responses and the number of fish, respectively, in the j-th tank within the i-th treatment group

$$i = 1, ..., I; j = 1, ..., J.$$

T.o.t

$$N_{i+} = \sum_{j=1}^{J} N_{ij}, X_{i+} = \sum_{j=1}^{J} X_{ij}, N_{++} = \sum_{i=1,j=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{J} N_{ij}, X_{++} = \sum_{j=1,j=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{J} X_{ij}.$$
 Then

 $p_{++} \equiv \frac{X_{++}}{N_{++}}$ is the estimate of the common value of p under H_o.

$$\chi^{2} \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{I} \frac{\left(X_{i+} - N_{i+} \hat{p}_{++}\right)^{2}}{N_{i+} \hat{p}_{++} (1 - \hat{p}_{++})}$$

is the χ^2 test of ${\rm H_0}.$ Under ${\rm H_0},~\chi^2\sim\chi^2_{I-1}.$ Since the chi square test is sensitive to all kinds of departures from ${\rm H_0},$ it is not tailor made to be sensitive to ordered alternatives, of the type most commonly encountered in toxicology. We will discuss this further later.

The chi square test is easy to carry out from a computational standpoint since many standard programs are available. For example the procedure PROC FREQ in the SAS statistical computing system [12] can be used to carry out this test. The program BMDP1F in the BMDP statistical computing system [9] can also be used for this purpose. Figure XI.1 illustrates output from SAS PROC FREQ to test for homogeneity of response rates across groups for the fry mortality data from the Holcombe and Phipps test on compound D. This test is based on data pooled across tanks within groups. Of course, the test rejects ${\rm H}_{\rm O}$ very strongly, as it should based on the appearance of the preliminary scatterplot.

We have also incorporated this test into our EXAX2 computer program [14]. We pool responses across tanks within groups and compute the chi square test. If expected frequencies within each cell exceed the cutoff, we evaluate the significance of chi square based on its asymptotic distribution under ${\rm H}_{\rm O}$.

If any expected frequency is less than the cutoff we evaluate the exact <u>small sample distribution</u> of chi square, conditional on the margins, by enumeration as discussed in the section on the exact chi square program.

We illustrate this feature of EXAX2 with the DeFoe compound C and with the Holcombe and Phipps compound D data. We tested for heterogeneity of response rates across groups for the fry mortality and the embryo mortality data. The results of these tests are shown in Figures XI.2 - XI.5.

Figure XI.2 illustrates the chi square test of homogeneity across treatment groups for the embryo mortality data in the DeFoe compound C experiment. It will be recalled that no tank to tank heterogeneity within treatment groups was found by the preliminary test, and so the data have been pooled across the tanks within treatment groups. The first matrix displays the observed 2 x 6 table. The second matrix displays the expected (under H_0) frequencies. Since each expected frequency exceeds 5 (by a great deal in this example) the test is based on asymptotic theory.

NOTE THAT SINCE THIS IS A PRELIMINARY TEST WE SHOULD BE VERY LIBERAL IN DECIDING WHEN TO REJECT H_o AND TO GO ON TO MORE DETAILED COMPARISONS. THUS A LARGE $\alpha\text{-VALUE}$ e.g. α = .20 or α = .25 SHOULD BE USED. THIS ENHANCES THE SENSITIVITY OF THE TEST TO DETECT MODERATE DEPARTURES FROM H_o .

We see from the bottom of Figure XI.2 that the observed significance level is α = 0.31. Thus even by our liberal yardstick we see no statistical evidence of group to group differences in embryo mortality in the DeFoe data. This agrees with the appearance of the preliminary scatter plots.

The same test was carried out for the DeFoe compound C fry mortality data. The results are given in Figure XI.3. Again, all the expected frequencies exceed 5.0 and so the asymptotic theory is used. This time the chi square statistic is highly significant. Chi square = 182.79 with 5 d.f. Thus there is strong statistical evidence of group to group response rate differences in fry mortality. This again agrees with the appearance of the preliminary scatter plot.

Figures XI.4, XI.5 contain the results of the chi square tests of homogeneity across groups for the Holcombe and Phipps compound D embryo mortality and fry mortality data respectively. Again the data have been pooled across tanks within groups.

In both cases the expected frequencies exceed 5 and so asymptotic theory is used. We see for the embryo mortality data the test is nonsignificant even at the liberalized α = .20. For the fry mortality data the test is very highly significant (chi square = 389.68 with 5 d.f.). Thus again there is no statistical evidence of group to group differences with respect to embryo mortality while there is strong statistical evidence of group to group differences with respect to fry mortality. This is in good agreement with the appearances of the preliminary scatterplots.

Figure XI.6, XI.7 contain the results of the chi square tests of homogeneity across groups for the Jarvinen compound B embryo mortality and fry mortality data respectively. The data have been pooled across tanks within groups. In both cases all the expected frequencies exceed 5 and so asymptotic theory is used.

For the fry mortality data the test is very highly significant, as was the case with the fry mortality data from the other experiments considered. It is quite clear that the last two treatment groups have substantially higher response rates than the first two groups.

In contrast to the cases for the DeFoe and Holcombe and Phipps data sets, there is some statistical evidence of group to group differences in embryo mortality rates.

We also saw strong statistical evidence in Sections VII and X of heterogeneity in response rates among tanks within groups. In Section IX we calculated an adjustment factor of $\hat{K}=3.071$ for these responses, to account for the tank to tank heterogeneity. The effect of this adjustment on chi square is to adjust it downward by the factor \hat{K} . Thus with respected to the adjusted "responses", the observed chi square value becomes $10.71426/\hat{K}=10.71426/3.071=3.489$. The probability that a chi square random variate with 5 d.f. exceeds 3.489 is 0.625. Thus the tank to tank heterogeneity within groups accounts for the significant chi square across groups. Thus again there is no statistical evidence of variation in embryo mortality rate across groups.

C. One Sided Tests of Homogeneity Across Treatment Groups

CANADA CONTRACTOR CONT

The shotgun chi square test, although the most commonly used test of homogeneity of response rates, is not the most appropriate

test for application to toxicity data. The chi square test is an overall test which is not designed to be particularly sensitive to the one sided, monotone alternatives characteristic of dose response tests. More specialized tests have been designed to be more powerful against alternatives of this type.

Several tests of response rate homogeneity against ordered alternatives are discussed in the literature. Snedecor and Cochran [28] section 9.11 and Steel and Torrie [29], section 22.10 extract a single degree of freedom from the overall chi square test to test for linear regression in 2 x K tables where the columns fall in a natural order Scores, Zj, are assigned (arbitrarily) to the columns to treat them as values on a continuous scale of measurement. The weighted linear regression coefficient of mortality probability on score Zj is calculated and tested for significance. The major drawback of this method is the arbitrariness of the scores. See [28, 29] for details.

An alternative approach to the construction of one sided tests is by means of measures of association for ordered contingency tables. Such measures can be thought of as analogs for qualitative responses to correlation coefficients for quantitative responses. Goodman and Kruskal [30, 31] have derived and reported on a number of measures. Several commonly used measures of association are Kendall's tau b, Stuart's tau c, Goodman and Kruskal's gamma, just to name a few. For a given table each of these measures yields different numerical values and so it is not clear how to ascribe physical meaning to these values. ever for each of the measures a value of zero means no monotone association between categories and positive or negative values mean positive or negative associations respectively. Thus a test of homogeneity of treatment group response rates that is sensitive to monotone, one sided alternatives can be constructed by testing the null hypothesis that these measures are zero against a one sided alternative. Brown and Benedetti [32] have calculated improved standard error estimates for the various measures that are appropriate studentizing factors to test the null hypothesis that these measures are zero. They show empirically that their new standard errors provide better approximations in small and moderate samples than do the older standard error estimates reported by Goodman and Kruskal [31]. Furthermore they show that a number of measures, each having different numerical values, result in identical "t ratios" when normalized by their respective Brown and Benedetti standard error estimates. This is desirable because we need consider just one "t ratio" rather than five. Proctor [33] shows that tests based on measures of association are in fact much more powerful against one sided, monotone alternatives than is the shotgun chi square test, as would be intuitively expected.

Agresti and Wackerly [15] also discuss one sided tests of homogeneity based on measures of association. They discuss Kendall's γ_b in some detail. They illustrate an instance of the increased sensitivity of such measure of association tests for detecting ordered departures from homogeneity with the following artificial example. Consider the 3 by 3 contingency table with ordered categories:

λB	}			
A \	High	Medium	Low	
High Medium	6	4	2	
Medium	4	4	4	
Low	2	4	6	

There is clearly a positive trend in the table however the Fisher-Irwin test (exact) shows significance level α = .514. This test would thus miss the trend. However Kendall's γ_b test (exact) is significant at α = .053 and so would detect the trend.

Agresti and Wackerly also comment that the asymptotic normal approximation to the distribution of the sample estimate of \$\gamma_b\$ may be quite poor for small sample sizes. They report that the observed significance level can be substantially greater than the nominal for small sample sizes; i.e. we reject \$H_0\$ when it is correct far more than the nominal proportion of times. This is at least in part due to the maximum likelihood estimate of standard error of \$\gamma_b\$ having a negative bias. Based on Agresti and Wickerly's example, asymptotic normal distribution theory would be suspect at least for \$N\$ below \$50\$. Agresti and Wackerly suggest that an alternative, exact conditional test against ordered alternatives can be used, based on measures of association and enumeration of tables, when the sample sizes are too small to apply asymptotic normal theory.

The applicability of asymptotic distribution theory for the sample sizes and magnitudes of response proportions encountered in fish toxicity tests is a matter for detailed future study, probably by simulation. This is too involved for us to consider here. However as we use this test only on pooled data (original or adjusted) across tanks within groups, the sample sizes would be expected to be reasonably large (N in excess of 200) and so we utilize asymptotic theory for the remainder of this section.

It should be noted that ordinal measures of association assume that as one variable (e.g. concentration) increases the other variable (e.g. percent mortality or percent abnormality) either increases monotonically or decreases monotonically.

Nonmonotone relations (e.g. first increasing and then decreasing) can well result in small or even zero values of the measures. This is analogous to properties of correlation coefficients.

Goodman and Kruskal [30] define and discuss the properties of a number of measures of association for cross classifications. They include a section on measures for ordered categories (i.e. ordinal data). They propose a measure, γ , which is defined as follows:

Suppose two individuals are drawn at random from a population described jointly by two discrete, ordered categories.

In our fish toxicity examples I = 2 (e.g. live, dead), J = C (number of groups)

Let (i, j), (i', j') denote the (random) indices of these two individuals within the two categories. If there is an ordered correspondence between categories, we should see the same (or opposite) orderings of each of the categories, depending on direction of association.

Let
$$\Pi_s \equiv P[(i>i' \text{ and } j>j') \text{ or } (i

$$\Pi_d \equiv P[(i>i' \text{ and } j

$$\Pi_+ \equiv P[i = i' \text{ or } j = j']. \equiv P\{\text{tie}\}$$$$$$

To avoid ambiguity they condition on the absence of ties. The conditional probability of like orders given no ties is $\mathbb{I}_{\underline{I}}/(1-\mathbb{I}_{\underline{I}})$. The conditional probability of unlike orders given no ties is $\mathbb{I}_{\underline{I}}/(1-\mathbb{I}_{\underline{I}})$. The difference of these two probabilities is defined as γ . Namely

Goodman and Kruskal's Gamma

$$\gamma = \frac{\Pi_{s} - \Pi_{d}}{1 - \Pi_{r}} \equiv \frac{\Pi_{s} - \Pi_{d}}{\Pi_{s} + \Pi_{r}}$$

In the situation when the two categories are independent $\Pi_s = \Pi_d$ and so $\gamma = 0$. However the converse is not necessarily true (except in the 2 x 2 case).

The Kendall's γ_b and Stuart's γ_c measures are related to γ . Let m \equiv min(I, J). Then

$$\gamma_{c} \equiv \frac{\prod_{s} - \prod_{d}}{(m-1)/m}$$

This modification is made so that γ_c can nearly attain the absolute value 1 for nonsquare tables when the entire population lies on a longest diagonal of the table.

Kendall's γ_b is also related to γ . Namely, let $p_{\mbox{ij}}$ denote a cell frequency,

$$p_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{J} p_{ij}, p_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} p_{ij}.$$
 Then

$$\gamma = \frac{\Pi_{s} - \Pi_{d}}{1 - \Pi_{t}} = \frac{\Pi_{s} - \Pi_{d}}{1 - \sum_{i=1}^{T} p_{i}^{2} - \sum_{j=1}^{T} p_{ij}^{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{T} \sum_{j=1}^{p_{ij}^{2}} p_{ij}^{2}}$$

$$\gamma_{b} \equiv \frac{\prod_{s} - \prod_{d}}{\sqrt{\left[1 - \sum_{i=j}^{s} p_{i}^{2}\right] \left[1 - \sum_{j=1}^{s} p_{j}^{2}\right]}}$$

 γ_b corrects for pairs of observations tied with respect to at least one of the categorizations and ranges between -1 and +1.

Somer's d (asymmetric measure)

$$\mathbf{d}_{\mathbf{R}\mid\mathbf{C}} = \frac{\mathbf{II}_{\mathbf{S}} - \mathbf{II}_{\mathbf{d}}}{1 - \mathbf{II}_{\mathbf{L}} + \mathbf{Y}_{\mathbf{C}}}$$

$$d_{C|R} = \frac{\prod_{s} - \prod_{d}}{1 - \prod_{t} + X_{o}}$$

Where $Y_0 = probability of tie in row only$

 $X_{O} \equiv \text{probability of tie in column only}$

For all of these measures a zero value indicates a complete lack of a monotone relationship between the two variables (no association). A value of +1 indicate a perfect monotone increasing relationship (perfect agreement) and a - 1 indicates a perfect monotone decreasing relationship (perfect disagreement). It should be noted that lack of a monotone relationship is not the same as statistical independence. These measures will equal zero when there is dependence of a complicated form. However, when the variables are independent, the measures will equal zero. Kendall's ${}^{\wedge}_{\mathbf{b}}$ differs from the others in that it can reach a value of $\underline{+}$ 1 only for square tables, otherwise its maximum is lower.

Stuart's γ_c is an adjustment of γ_b that can attain value $\pm~1$ for non square tables.

There is much discussion in the literature about which measures most realistically portray strengths of monotone relations. In general it is difficult to interpret the magnitudes of these measures in any physically meaningful fashion. However we will be using these measures of association only for tests of significance to detect departures from 0. For this application the situation simplifies considerably since Brown and Benedetti, page 311, show that basing a test of significance on γ_c , γ , γ_b , d_{C|R}, d_{R|C} all lead to exactly the same test statistic, sample for sample. Thus we do not need to be concerned with differences among the values of the measures. That is, Brown and Benedetti, [125] have derived new estimates ASE_{O} of the asymptotic standard errors of the measures of association that are better than those given previously in the literature for testing the null hypothesis that the measure is zero. They report one set of standard errors to use for testing purposes and another set of standard errors to use for constructing confidence intervals. They show that

$$\frac{\hat{\gamma}}{\mathsf{ASE}_{\mathsf{O}}(\gamma)} \equiv \frac{\hat{\gamma}_{\mathsf{b}}}{\mathsf{ASE}_{\mathsf{O}}(\hat{\gamma}_{\mathsf{b}})} \equiv \frac{\hat{\gamma}_{\mathsf{c}}}{\mathsf{ASE}_{\mathsf{O}}(\hat{\gamma}_{\mathsf{c}})} \equiv \frac{\hat{d}_{\mathsf{R}/\mathsf{C}}}{\mathsf{ASE}_{\mathsf{O}}(\hat{d}_{\mathsf{R}/\mathsf{C}})} \equiv \frac{\hat{d}_{\mathsf{C}/\mathsf{R}}}{\mathsf{ASE}_{\mathsf{O}}(\hat{d}_{\mathsf{C}/\mathsf{R}})} \equiv \mathsf{T}$$

which means that the five measures all give the same test of the null hypothesis of no (monotone) association.

Brown and Benedetti report a simulation study of the use of these T ratios to test the null hypothesis. They compared the T-values to the percentage points of the standard normal distribution. They concluded that

- The ASE 's give empirical type I error rates closer to the nominal significance level and more consistent for different patterns of non-association than do previously reported standard error estimates.
- 2. For N \geq 100 the T value can safely be compared to the percentile points of the standard normal distribution.
- 3. For $N \le 50$ the distribution of the T value seems to have heavier than normal tails, and they recommend comparing it to Student's t with approximate degrees of freedom (ADF) = 0.4N.

Their T - ratios for testing the null hypothesis of nonassociation (i.e. monotone) and (asymptotic) standard errors appropriate for constructing confidence intervals on the measures of association are implemented in the BMDP [27] program BMDP1F, measures of association for two way frequency tables. (Note that BMDP1F was extensively rewritten and reissued in August, 1976. Thus only versions of this program dated after August, 1976 are based on the most up to date theory). We will illustrate the use of this program in this section, with both artificial and real data.

Proctor [33] has discussed the relative efficiencies of tests of association for ordered two way contingency tables and has compared these efficiencies with that of the chi square test. He reports that in most cases of ordered alternatives, the efficiencies of tests based on the measures of association are much greater than that of tests based on chi square. For one example of a 6 x 6 ordered contingency table constructed from an underlying bivariate normal distribution with correlation ρ = 0.80, the efficiencies of the tests of association based on measures of association relative to the chi square test were about 3.4. This means that for the chi square test to attain the same power against this alternative as a test based on the measures of association, it would need to be based on more than three times as many observations. In efficiency calculations based on other assumptions about he alternatives, the chi square procedure was consistently generally very much less efficient than test procedures based on measures of association.

To get some further feeling for the sensitivities to ordered alternatives of tests based on measures of association as compared with the chi square test we constructed several artificial sets of data having varying degrees of monotone trend in response probabilities. We tested the null hypothesis of no association between mortality level and treatment group using the one sided tests based on ordinal measures of association and the shot gun chi square test. Both of these tests can be carried out using the BMDP program [27] BMDP1F (versions subsequent to August, 1976). We should note that in these one sided tests we are looking for counterassociation. That is, the probability of being alive decreases as concentration group increases. We are thus testing for departures from 0 in a negative direction.

Figure XI.8 contains instructions for using program BMDP1F. Figures XI.9, 10 and 11 illustrate one sided and chi square tests on tables (based on artificial data) that exhibit linear trends of response probability with concentration group, but with differing slopes. They represent mild, moderate, and strong trends. In each case the one sided test based on measures of association reflects a <u>much</u> stronger association between categories than does the chi square test.

In conclusion, we see that the various ordinal measures of association provide equivalent tests of the null hypothesis of no association between mortality rate and concentration group. Further more all the tests are much more sensitive than the chi square test to alternatives of a monotonic nature.

Appendix A5, pp 778-792, of the 1979 BMDP manual [27] and Brown and Benedetti [32] are helpful in interpreting the output from BMDP1F. Brown and Benedetti calculate two asymptotic standard errors for each measure, ASE_0 , ASE_1 . ASE_1 is derived assuming the alternative hypothesis is true; i.e. the measure is not zero. It is obtained by the method of Goodman and Kruskal [31] and is appropriate for setting confidence limits on the measures for large samples. Brown and Benedetti discuss the use of ASE_1 in computing confidence limits and power in an unpublished technical report that is available from the Health Sciences Computing Facility at UCLA.

 ${\rm ASE}_{\rm O}$ is computed under the null hypothesis that the measure is zero. It was derived by Brown and Benedetti in the 1977 paper cited above.

The T-value for each measure is the ratio of each measure to its ${\rm ASE}_{\rm O}$. Brown and Benedetti report, based on simulation studies, that the use of ${\rm ASE}_{\rm O}$ in the denominator of the T-statistic rather than ${\rm ASE}_{\rm 1}$ or other suggestions made in the literature gives superior results in that the attained type I error

rates are closer to nominal and are more consistent for differing patterns of probabilities.

To illustrate the use of these one sided tests of association vs ordered alternatives as compared with the chi square test of significance, we ran the BMDP program, BMDP1F, on mortality data data from the DeFoe compound C test and from the Holcombe and Phipps compound D tests. The results are shown in Figures XI.12-15, both for embryo mortality data and for fry mortality data. Qualitatively there is no difference, in these data, in the conclusions arrived at by each procedure. The relationships between concentration and percent response are so strong in the fry mortality data that the observed significance levels are 0 to many decimal places. For the embryo mortality data, neither procedure reveals a statistically significant relation between concentration and percent mortality. Since the observed mortality in the DeFoe embryo data is smaller at the higher concentrations than at the lower, the measures of association are positive and the observed significance level is higher for the one sided test than for the chi square test. We almost have a significant trend in the wrong direction! Why? It may be due to the outlier tank in group 2.

In conclusion it should be remarked that any overall test for concentration related effects is just a screening device. It merely states whether there is any statistical evidence of concentration related effects but does not provide any indication of which treatment groups have responses that differ from the control group. That is the role of multiple comparisons. The overall test is intended to screen out those data sets for which multiple comparisons would be a futile exercise because no differences exist. In this regard it should be noted that since the overall test is just a preliminary procedure, it makes sense to use a very liberal α -level, like α = .20 or perhaps even α = .50. This improves the sensitivity of the test to detect marginal effects, but at the expense of an increased false rejection rate. However such false rejections of the null hypothesis will be detected later in the multiple comparison phase.

CTGL	TRT						
FREQUENCY! EXPECTED CELL CHI2!		FRY	MOR	RTALIT	Y		
COL PCT	1	2 1	3	4 1	5	1 6 1	TOTAL
DEAD	6 35 • 7 24 • 7 6 • 00	8 35.7 21.5 8.00	8 35.7 21.5 8.00	13 35.7 14.4 13.00	79 35.7 52.6 79.00	100 35.7 116.0 100.00	214
LIVE	94 64.3 13.7 94.00	92 64.3 11.9 92.00	92 64.3 11.9 92.00	87 64-3 8-0 87-00	21 64.3 29.2 21.00	0 64.3 64.3 0.00	366
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100	600

STATISTICS	FOR 2-WA	Y TABLES
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CHI-SQUARE	389-676	DF=	5	PROB=0.0001
PHI	0.806			
CONTINGENCY CUEFFICIENT	0.627			
CRAMER'S V	0.806			
LIKELIHOOD RATIO CHISQUARE	444.801	DF=	5	PROB=0.0001

Figure XI.1 SAS PROC FREQ output from chi square test for homogeneity across groups applied to fry mortality data from Holcombe and Phipps test on Compound D

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Figure XI.2 EXAX2 output -- chi square test of homogeneity across groups

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Figure XI.3 --EXAX2 output-- chi square test of homogeneity across groups

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--EXAX2 output-- chi square test of homogeneity across groups Figure XI.4

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--EXAX2 output-- chi square test of homogeneity across groups Figure XI.5

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COMPOUND B FREETS NEATALITY

Figure XI.6 --EXAX2 output-- chi square test of homogeneity across groups

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Figure XI.7 --EXAX2 output-- chi square test of homogeneity across groups

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PROGRAM CONTROL INFORMATION	
ZINDULEM TITLE IS SENSITIVATY TESTING	OF GROINAL MEASURES!
TABLE 15 16F5.0). /VARIABLE NAMES ARE CONC.MORT.	
VIABLE ROW IS MURT. CATEGORY NAMES(2) ARE ALIVE, DEAD.	
	DRDINAL MEASURES
JF VARIABLES TO READ IN	20
LIMIIS AND MISSING VALUE CHECKED BEFORE TRANSFORMATIONS	1000000 RMA110WS
CANT WHEEK TO READING: DATA:	NO

Figure XI.8 Input information required for program BMDP1F

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• • • • • •		TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100	600			
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STATISTIC GAMPA SUMER'S D		STATISTIC GAMMA SUMER'S D	VALUE -0.150 -0.125	ASE 1 T-VALUE 0.098 -1.504	0.098 -1.504 DEP.		STATISTIC STUARTISTAU-C KENDALL'S TAU-C SOMER'S D	0-C			ASE1 0.026 0.035	1-VALUE DE -1-504 -1-504
1	90	Observed Significance Levels	a lerels.	1					•			
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CELL FREQUENCY COUNTS

TABLE NO.

Figure XI.9 BMDP1F output from one sided measure of association test on artificial data

CAL CALCAL (KKT	Observed Significance Leves	STATISTIC - VALUE ASEI T-VALUE DEP. STATISTIC - 0.078 0.029 0.029 0.029 0.029 0.035 0.035 0.035 0.035 0.035 0.035 0.035 0.035 0.035 0.035 0.035 0.035 0.035 0.035 0.035	PLAKSON CHISQUARE 7.150 D.F. PROB STATISTIC VALUE 0.F. PROB	TUTAL 100 100 100 100 100 600	HURT 2 ALIVE 2.00 94 92 90 88 86 84 1 534	EQ./EQ. 1.00 2.00 3.00 4.00 5.00 6.00 TOTAL	CONC (YAR 11	CELL FREQUENCY COUNTS	57.AL 66 53.4
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Figure XI.10 BMDP1F output from one sided measure of association test on artificial data

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Figure XI.11 BMDP1F output from one sided measure of association test on artificial data

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Figure XI.12 BMDP1F output on real data

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×=0.89

1. Chi Square Test 2. One Sided Measure of Association Test

Observed Significance Levels

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Fig.re XI.13 BMPDIF output on real data

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Figure XI.14 BMDP1F output on real data

2. One Sided Measure of Association Test

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Figure XI.15 BMDPlF output on real data

XII. TREATMENT GROUP VS CONTROL GROUP PAIRWISE MULTIPLE COMPARISON PROCEDURES

If the overall test rejects the hypothesis of no concentration related effects we must determine which treatment group response rates differ from the control group rate. A number of procedures can be used for such inferences, some based on hypothesis testing and some based on confidence interval estimation. In this section we consider several approaches based on tests of hypotheses. The discussion is by no means exhaustive. In the following section we discuss confidence interval procedures.

A common approach to multiple comparisons on qualitative response rate data such as mortality rates is to carry out an arc sine normalizing transformation on the observed response rate within each group and then compare each treatment group with the control using Dunnett's or Williams' procedures [34, 35, 36, 37]. Such procedures are based on asymptotic theory whose validity is questionable if there are a number of small expected frequencies.

An alternative multiple testing approach is to carry out a succession of 2 x 2 contingency table tests of homogeneity between each treatment group and the control group, based on Fisher's exact test [13] or on asymptotic theory depending on expected frequencies. Our EXAX2 program will do this. A treatment group is said to be (statistically) significantly different from the control group at e.g. the $\alpha=0.05$ level if the pairwise test rejects the null hypothesis after adjusting for simultaneity by Bonferroni's method. (i.e. If we perform five pairwise comparisons and wish to guarantee an overall $\alpha=0.05$ type one error level then each individual comparison must be made at the $\alpha/5=0.01$ level). Note that this approach does not impose any monotonicity structure on the response rates and so may not be most sensitive to detect small to moderate effects.

Dunnett [34 , 35] presents a procedure for multiple comparison of each of the treatment group responses with the control group response, controlling the overall error rate for all comparisons. His procedure is derived for quantitative responses, assumed to have equal variability. He assumes equal replication among the treatment groups with equal or possibly greater replication of the control group. We might apply this procedure to qualitative response data from to dicity tests after performing an arc sine variance stabilizing relation on the observed responses.

A problem with the application of Dunnett's procedure to the analysis of data from toxicity tests is that is does not take full account of the structure of the problem. Namely the various treatment groups correspond to increasing toxicant levels. One might therefore assume a monotone (increasing or decreasing) response level with increasing group number. Since Dunnett did not build such a monotoxicity assumption into his procedure, it loses some sensitivity.

Williams [36, 37] assumes a monotone response function. He estimates the treatment and control group response rates under the monotoxicity restraint and uses these estimates for treatment group - control group comparisons. See Williams [36] for details. Chew [38, pp.26-27] briefly describes Williams' method and presents tables for its implementation. Williams [36] assumes equal replication for all concentrations (including the control). He extends this procedure [37] to accommodate increased replication in the control group, two sided tests, and modifications to account for unequal replication among the treatment groups. As with Dunnett's procedure, we can apply Williams method to qualitative response data after carrying out an arc sine transformation.

We illustrate Williams' method with several examples based on results from fish toxicity tests. Consider first the fry mortality data from the Holcombe and Phipps test on compound D. From the preliminary scatterplot in Figure VI.6 and the overall tests of significance in Section XI, it is quite evident that fry mortality increases with increasing toxicant level. We wish to determine here which treatment groups exhibit significantly greater fry mortality rates than the control group. As the result of the within groups heterogeneity test was marginal $(\alpha=0.14,$ see section VIII) we do not adjust the data prior to carrying out Williams' procedure.

The basic and transformed responses, pooled across tanks within groups are:

Group (i)	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sample Size (n_i)	100	100	100	100	100	100
Response Rate (\hat{p}_i)	0.06	0.08	0.08	0.13	0.79	1.00
2Arc Sin $\sqrt{\hat{p}_i} \equiv \hat{\mu}_i$	0.495	0.574	0.574	0.738	2.190	3.142

Since these estimates are already in monotone sequence, they do not need to be modified. We declare the group i response rate to be significantly different from the control rate if

$$\hat{\mu}_{i} - \hat{\mu}_{1} > \bar{t}(2/n)^{1/2}$$

The factor \bar{t} can be obtained from Williams' tables corresponding to the 5% or the 1% significance level. The yardstick $\bar{t}(2/n)^{1/2}$ is based on the assumption that the variance of 2 arc sin $\sqrt{\hat{p}}$ is 1/n. In our example n=100 and $\bar{t}=1.756$ (corresponding to 5 treatment groups and $\alpha=0.05$). Thus the response in group i is declared to differ significantly from

the control group response if $\hat{\mu}_i > 0.495 + 1.756 \ (2/100)^{1/2} = 0.743$. Groups 5 and 6 differ significantly from the control and group 4 is just on the borderline.

We now examine the effect on the outcome of this procedure of applying an adjustment for tank to tank heterogeneity. From Section IX B we see that this factor is $\overline{K}=1.337$ for the above data. Thus the "effective" sample size per group is 100/1.337=74.79 and the decision point for Williams' procedure becomes $0.495+1.756(2/74.79)^{1/2}=0.782$. Group 4 is no longer borderline.

We now apply this same procedure to the embryo mortality data from the Jarvinen test on compound B. The result of the within groups heterogeneity test was highly significant (α = 0.005) and so we first adjust the data prior to carrying out Williams' procedure. From Section IXB the adjustment factor is \hat{K} = 3.071. The basic and transformed responses along with effective sample sizes, pooled across tanks within groups are:

Group (i)	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Effective Sample size $(n_i/\hat{\vec{k}})$	32.89	35.49	32.56	31.91	34.19	32.89	
Response Rate (\hat{p}_i)	0.139	0.073	0.090	0.020	0.057	0.079	
2 Arc Sin $\sqrt{\hat{p}_i} \equiv \hat{\mu}_i$	0.764	0.547	0.609	0.284	0.482	0.570	

For the sake of simplicity we will utilize an average sample size of 33.32 within each group, but the calculation could alternatively be carried out based on the individual group sample sizes. Since $\{\hat{\mu}_i\}$ are not in monotone sequence we must first modify them by an averaging process discussed in Williams [36] or in Chew [38] until the resulting estimates satisfy the monotoxicity constraint. We obtain 0.537, 0.537, 0.537, 0.537, 0.537, 0.570. We declare group i significantly greater than the control group if $\hat{\mu}_i > 0.764 + 1.756$ (2/33.32) $^{1/2} = 1.194$. Obviously no treatment groups have significantly greater response than the control group. (Interestingly if we carry out Williams' procedure on these data to look for a monotone decreasing trend in response rate, we arrive at the same conclusion. That is, no group has significantly lower response rate than the control group).

Dunnett's and Williams' procedures are based on asymptotic theory. If the response frequencies do not justify the use of

asymptotic theory we can carry out a succession of exact, small sample 2×2 treatment-control comparisons by means of Fisher's exact test, adjusting for simultaneity by Bonferroni's method. Consider for example the comparison of treatment group 4 with the control group for the fry mortality data from Holcombe and Phipp's test on compound D. We have the following 2×2 table.

CONTROL		GROUP 4	
DEAD	6	13	19
LIVE	94	87	181
	100	100	200

Here, in the notation of Lieberman and Owen,

k = 19 n = 100 N = 200

AND PROPERTY OF THE PROPERTY O

Interpolating in the Lieberman and Owen tables [26]

between N = 100 and $N = \infty$ we have

$$N = 100$$
 $P(X \le 6) = .062$ $1/N = .01$ $N = \infty$ $P(X \le 6) = .0835$ $1/N = 0$ $N = 200$ $P(X \le 6) = ?$ $1/N = .005$

Thus $P(X \le 6) = 1/2(.0835 + .062) = .073$

Thus this table is significant at the .07 level (not accounting for simultaneity).

This exact test procedure is thus seen to be somewhat less sensitive than Williams' procedure applied to the same data. This is understandable since it does not incorporate the monotonicity structure of the response rates.

XIII. CONFIDENCE INTERVAL PROCEDURES FOR COMPARISON OF TREATMENT GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP RESPONSE RATES

A. Introduction

We have previously considered overall tests of hypotheses to compare response rates in replicate tanks within treatment groups and to compare response rates across treatment groups. In this section we consider procedures for constructing confidence intervals to compare response rates in the treatment groups with that in the control group on a pairwise basis.

It is well known that hypothesis testing procedures are somewhat limited in their conclusions. They merely state whether the null hypothesis was accepted or rejected but give no indication of the extent of the effect. Thus we have no idea of the biological significance of the effect (as opposed to its statistical significance). The rejection or nonrejection of a null hypothesis is often more a result of sample size than of the biological importance of the effect. The determination of acceptable concentrations should be based on what are biologically significant effects rather than on the power function of a hypothesis testing procedure.

Confidence intervals are more informative than tests of hypothesis. The widths of the confidence intervals indicate the <u>degree</u> of precision in the data concerning the estimates of the quantities of interest in our inferences. Narrow confidence intervals signify precise inferences while wide confidence intervals signify imprecise inferences.

In the discussion in this section we consider the case of no tank to tank heterogeneity within groups. Thus we pool responses across tanks within groups to arrive at average response rates within groups. The presence of tank to tank heterogeneity can be accounted for by

- Fitting a model which explicitely accounts for heterogeneity
 of response rates across tanks -- for example the beta binomial extension of the binomial model, the negative binomial extension of the Poisson model, or a variance components
 extension of a fixed effects analysis of variance model for
 quantitative responses.
- 2. By carrying out analyses on a per tank basis rather than on a per fish basis. This approach is conservative and greatly diminishes the number of degrees of freedom available for error estimation.
- 3. By adjusting the data to account for the extent of tank to tank variation. Namely tank to tank variation can be

regarded as correlated responses within tanks, generally positively correlated. Thus the variability of the average responses within tanks is greater than would be the case if the responses were independent within tanks. Such reduction in variation can be simply accounted for by reducing the "effective" sample size within tanks to a lesser value and then ignoring the within tank correlation and proceeding with binomial based procedures or the like. The reduction in "effective" sample size reduces the precisions of the estimates and test statistics just as does correlation effects.

The procedures discussed in this section, although based on binomial theory, can be used in conjunction with adjustment method 3. Thus they are also relevant in the case when tank to tank heterogeneity exists.

Consider the Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality data. We wish to compare the response rate in treatment group 4 with that in treatment group 1 (the control group). The basic data, pooled across tanks within groups, is

	CONTROL	GROUP 4	
DEAD	6	13	19
LIVE	94	87	181
	100	100	200

Fisher's exact test (without simultaneity adjustment) says that p_4 is "significantly" greater than p_1 at the α = 0.07 level. However a significance statement such as this says nothing about the magnitude of p_4/p_1 . Estimating the value of this ratio is important for assessing whether there is a biologically significant increase in mortality between the control group and group four. Confidence interval procedures enable us to estimate p_4/p_1 and determine the precision of our estimate as well determine whether p_4 is (statistically) significantly greater than p_1 .

There are three approaches to the construction of confidence intervals in the case of quantal response data.

- Large sample normal theory confidence intervals.
- Exact, small sample confidence intervals based on the noncentral distribution of the 2 x 2 contingency table, conditional on the margins. (See Thomas [39]) for the theory and the algorithm.

We have implemented this algorithm in EXAX2[14].

♠ Approximate confidence intervals based on Poisson theory. These intervals are most appropriate when the response probabilities are small (usually under .10).

It should be noted that these procedures do $\underline{\text{not}}$ take the monotonic nature of the response probabilities into account. We consider each of these approaches in turn.

B. Method 1 Asymptotic Approach

To use the asymptotic normal approach we adopt a conservative yardstick and require that each cell in the 2×2 table under consideration contain at least 5 responses.

For most situations of practical interest both p_1 and p_4 will be relatively far from 1. Certainly if p_1 , the mortality rate in the control group is close to 1, the test will be terminated. If p_4 is very close to 1 while p_1 is close to 0, there is no need in calculating confidence intervals on their ratio. Group 4 will be obviously unsatisfactory.

We wish to calculate an asymptotic theory confidence interval on the ratio

$$\theta = p_4/p_1$$

Let

$$\phi \equiv \ln\theta = \ln p_4 - \ln p_1$$

We estimate ϕ by

$$\hat{\phi} \equiv \ln \hat{p}_4 - \ln \hat{p}_1$$

As N_1 , $N_4 \rightarrow \infty$ with p_1 , p_4 fixed

$$\hat{\phi}$$
 is approximately $N\left(\phi, \frac{q_1}{N_1 p_1} + \frac{q_4}{N_4 p_4}\right)$

Thus an approximate 95% confidence interval on ϕ is

$$\hat{\phi} - 1.96 \left[\frac{q_1}{N_1 p_1} + \frac{q_4}{N_4 p_4} \right]^{1/2} \le \phi \le \hat{\phi} + 1.96 \left[\frac{q_1}{N_1 p_1} + \frac{q_4}{N_4 p_4} \right]^{1/2}$$

In the case of the Holcombe and Phipps example

$$N_1 = N_4 = 100$$
 $\hat{q}_1 = 1 - .06 = .94$ $\hat{p}_1 = 6/100 = 0.06$ $\hat{q}_4 = 1 - .13 = .87$ $\hat{p}_4 = 13/100 = 0.13$

Substituting \hat{p}_1 , \hat{q}_1 , \hat{p}_4 , \hat{q}_4 for the corresponding parameters in the standard error formula we have

$$\left[\frac{\hat{q}_1}{N_1\hat{p}_1} + \frac{\hat{q}_4}{N_4\hat{p}_4}\right]^{1/2} = \left[\frac{.94}{100(.06)} + \frac{.87}{100(.13)}\right]^{1/2} = 0.473$$

Thus an approximate 95% confidence interval on ϕ is

$$(0.773 - 1.96(.473), 0.773 + 1.96(.473)) = (-.154, 1.700)$$

Therefore, (e^{-.154}, e^{1.700}) is an asymptotic 95% confidence interval on θ = p_4/p_1

This interval is

The conclusions from this confidence interval calculation are

- ullet p₄ is <u>not</u> "significantly" different from p₁ at the .05 level since the confidence interval contains 1. (Note that we observed borderline significance with Williams' procedure at α = 0.05).
- \bullet p₄ is not very much smaller than p₁ (at least 86% of p₁) but may be much larger than p₁ (as much as 5.5 times p₁)
- \bullet p₄/p₁ is not determined very precisely by the data, based on such a comparison.

We have thus quantified the relation between p_1 and p_4 .

We now calculate 95% confidence intervals to compare the response rates in each of the other treatment groups with that in the control group.

	CONTROL	GROUP 2	GROUP 3	GROUP 4	GROUP 5	GROUP 6
DEAD	6	8	8	13	79	100
LIVE	94	92	92	87	21	0
	100	100	100	100	100	100

Holcombe and Phipps Compound D Fry Mortality Data Pooled Across Tanks within Treatment Groups

We are not particularly interested in comparing group 6 with the control since it is obviously inferior. We thus compare groups 2, 3, and 5 with the control group by means of asymptotic 95% confidence intervals.

Group 2 vs Control

$$\theta \equiv p_{2}/p_{1}$$

$$\phi \equiv \ln\theta = \ln p_{2} - \ln p_{1}$$

$$\hat{\phi} = \ln \hat{p}_{2} - \ln \hat{p}_{1} = \ln 0.08 - \ln 0.06 = 0.288$$

$$\text{stderr}(\hat{\phi}) = \left[\frac{\hat{q}_{2}}{N_{2}\hat{p}_{2}} + \frac{\hat{q}_{1}}{N_{1}\hat{p}_{1}}\right]^{1/2} = \left[\frac{.92}{100(.08)} + \frac{.94}{100(.08)}\right]^{1/2} = 0.521$$

$$\hat{\phi} \pm 1.96 \text{ stderr}(\hat{\phi}) = 0.288 \pm 1.96(0.52) = (-.733, 1.309)$$

Thus an asymptotic 95% confidence interval on θ is $(e^{-.733}, e^{1.309}) = (0.480, 3.703)$. This implies that there is no statistical evidence at the .05 level of a difference between p_2 and p_1 . Furthermore the present data do not determine this ratio very precisely.

Group 5 vs Control

$$\hat{\phi} = \ln \hat{p}_5 - \ln \hat{p}_1 = \ln 0.79 - \ln 0.06 = 2.578$$

$$\hat{\text{stderr}}(\hat{\phi}) = \left[\frac{.21}{100(.79)} + \frac{.94}{100(.06)} \right]^{1/2} = (.159)^{1/2} = 0.399$$

$$\hat{\phi} + 1.96 \hat{\text{stderr}}(\hat{\phi}) = (1.794, 3.362)$$

Thus an asymptotic 95% confidence interval on θ is $(e^{1.794}, e^{3.362}) = (6.011, 28.859)$. There is thus overwhelming statistical evidence that the response rate in group 5 is substantially greater than that in the control group, by at least a factor of 6. The interval however is very

wide and so we cannot determine the ratio very precisely.

We may wish to modify these intervals for simultaneity. Since we are calculating 4 confidence intervals we can adjust their levels to attain a <u>familywise confidence level</u> of 0.05. The simplest way to do this is by means of Bonferroni's inequality. Namely we construct each interval at individual confidence level 1 - (.05/4) = .9875. The appropriate normal distribution factor then becomes 2.50.

$$\exp \left\{ \ln (\hat{p}_{j}/\hat{p}_{1}) + 2.50 \left[\hat{q}_{j}/N\hat{p}_{j} + \hat{q}_{1}/N_{1}\hat{p}_{1} \right]^{1/2} \right\} \qquad J = 2, 3, 4, 5$$

These intervals are:

Group 2 vs Control (.363, 4.906)
Group 3 vs Control (.363, 4.906)
Group 4 vs Control (.664, 7.067)
Group 5 vs Control (4.857, 35.712)

We thus conclude that there is strong statistical evidence that group 5 has at least 5 times the response rate of group 1 but there is not enough statistical evidence to distinguish the response rates at groups 2, 3, 4, from that at group 1. Furthermore the data are not sufficient to make precise inferences about the ratios of treatment group to control group response rates without putting further structure on the problem such as assuming some sort of dose response relation. We will consider this approach in subsequent sections.

C. Method 2 Exact, Small Sample Confidence Intervals

If the sample sizes are not sufficiently large to apply the asymptotic confidence interval procedure (method 1) and if response proportions are not sufficiently small to apply Poisson theory (method 3), then confidence interval comparisons between treatment groups and control group can be made by an exact, small sample procedure. This procedure is based on the non null distribution of Fisher's exact test in 2 x 2 contingency tables.

Consider a 2×2 contingency table to compare the response rate in a particular treatment group with that in the control group.

	Control	Group 2	Total
Dead	x ₁	x ₂	x ₁ + x ₂
Live	m - X ₁	m - X ₂	$m + n - (x_1 + x_2)$
	m	n	m + n

Let \mathbf{p}_1 , \mathbf{p}_2 denote the response probabilities (e.g. probability of death) within the control group and treatment group respectively. We can test the hypothesis

Ho:
$$p_1 = p_2$$

vs
$$H_1: p_1 \neq p_2$$

by means of Fisher's exact test (Lehmann [25], Lieberman and Owen [26]), conditional on the margins of the table being fixed. This test is based on the hypergeometric distribution. We reject ${\rm H}_{\rm O}$ if ${\rm X}_2$ is too extreme.

The nonnull distribution of X_2 conditional on $X_1 + X_2 = t$ is

$$P(X_2 = x | X_1 + X_2 = t) = C_t(\rho) \left(t - x\right) \left(\frac{n}{x}\right) \rho^x$$
 $x = 0, 1, 2, ..., t$

where $C_{t}(\rho)$ is a normalizing constant and

$$\rho = \frac{p_1/q_1}{p_2/q_2}$$

The quantity ρ is known as the <u>odds ratio</u> and is very important for power calculations and for calculating confidence intervals to compare the response rates in the treatment and control groups on a pairwise basis.

The odds ratio is a quantity between 0 and ∞ . $\rho=1$ if and only if $p_1=p_2$. If $\rho>1$ then $p_1/p_2>1$ and if $\rho<1$ then $p_1/p_2<1$. The size of the confidence interval on ρ indicates how precisely this quantity can be estimated from the data.

Thomas [39] presents an algorithm for calculating exact, small sample confidence intervals on ρ based on the distribution of X_2 , conditional on the margins of the table. We have implemented Thomas' algorithm in EXAX2 [14] and illustrate the calculation of the confidence intervals with several examples.

We first consider the Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality data. The output appears in Figure XIII.1. The first page of the output defines the odds ratio explicitly in terms of the order of the groups and the order of the response categories. Subsequent pages present the individual 2 x 2 tables to compare treatment groups with the control group on a pairwise basis, a point estimate and confidence interval on the odds ratio and the one sided significance level of Fisher's exact test for equality of the two response probabilities.

It should be noted that the quantities ALPHAL and ALPHAU, which specify the probability inequalities governing the upper and lower

confidence limits are under the control of the user. They can be adjusted to yield one sided upper or lower confidence bounds in place of two sided intervals or to account for simultaneity by means of Bonferroni's method.

In the present example individual 95% two-sided confidence intervals are calculated on the odds ratios of each treatment group with the control group. The conclusions are similar to those arrived at with the asymptotic intervals. Namely the response rates in groups 2 and 3 cannot be distinguished from that in the control group. The fry mortality rate in group 4 is marginally worse than the control group rate. The lower confidence limit of 0.13 suggests that the fry mortality rate in group 4 could be substantially worse than the control rate. The upper confidence limit of 1.27 is not too far removed from 1.0. This implies that the fry mortality rate in group 4 is not significantly different from that in group 1 at $\alpha = 0.05$ but would be significant at a slightly higher α -level. (α = 0.07 suffices here). The odds ratios comparing the responses rates in groups 5, 6 to that in the control group are very small and the upper bounds are very small. There is thus strong evidence that these groups have significantly higher fry mortality rates than the control group and substantilly so.

The large widths of the confidence intervals imply that the odds ratios cannot be determined very precisely.

We next consider the Holcombe and Phipps compound D embryo mortality data. The output format is the same as that for the fry mortality data and appears in Figure XIII.2. We see that none of the treatment group response rates are significantly different from the control group rate. The confidence intervals all straddle 1 and so the treatment group response rates cannot be distinguished from the control group response rate. This is in conformance with the results of our preliminary analyses.

The previous discussion pertained to construction of exact, small sample confidence intervals on the odds ratio

$$\rho = \frac{p_1/q_1}{p_2/q_2}$$

However ρ has no direct physical interpretation. A parameter such as

$$\theta = p_2/p_1$$

is more physically meaningful. How can we construct confidence intervals on θ based on the confidence intervals we have constructed on $\rho?$ We can express θ in terms of ρ and $\boldsymbol{p}_{\text{1}}$. Namely

$$\theta = \frac{1}{\rho + p_1(1 - \rho)}$$

If ρ <1 then θ decreases as p_1 increases from 0 to 1. If ρ >1 then θ increases as p_1 increases from 0 to 1. For fixed p_1 , θ decreases as ρ increases from 0 to ∞

Suppose $(\rho, \tilde{\rho})$ is a confidence interval on ρ and suppose $(\tilde{p_1}, \tilde{p_1})$ is a confidence interval on p_1 .

Then a conservative confidence interval on θ is

$$\left(\frac{1}{\stackrel{\sim}{\rho} + p_1^*(1-\stackrel{\sim}{\rho})}, \frac{1}{\stackrel{\sim}{\rho} + p_1^{**}(1-\stackrel{\sim}{\rho})}\right)$$

Where

$$\mathbf{p}_{1}^{\star} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{p}_{1} & \text{as } \mathbf{p}_{1}^{\mathsf{P}} \\ \mathbf{p}_{1} & \text{as } \mathbf{p}_{1}^{\mathsf{P}} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{p}_{1} & \text{as } \mathbf{p}_{1}^{\mathsf{P}} \\ \mathbf{p}_{1} & \text{as } \mathbf{p}_{1}^{\mathsf{P}} \end{cases}$$

The confidence interval on the odds ratio ρ comes from the EXAX2 program output. Confidence intervals on \textbf{p}_1 can be calculated by the Pearson-Clopper method. Namely if

$$\hat{p}_1 = \frac{X_1}{N_1}$$
 then

$$P_{1} = \left\{ 1 + \frac{N_{1} - X_{1} + 1}{X_{1}} F(2N_{1} - 2X_{1} + 2, 2X_{1}; 1 - \alpha/2) \right\}^{-1}$$

$$= 0 \text{ if } X_{1} = 0$$

$$\stackrel{\sim}{\mathbf{p}}_{1} = \left\{ 1 + \frac{N_{1} - X_{1}}{X_{1} + 1} \frac{1}{F(2X_{1} + 2, 2N_{1} - 2X_{1}; 1 - \alpha/2)} \right\}^{-1}$$

$$= 1 \text{ if } X_{1} = N_{1}$$

These confidence intervals are given in chart form. See for example Box, Hunter, and Hunter [40], pages 642, 643 or Dixon and Massey [13], pages 501-504.

We apply this conservative procedure to the Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality data and compare the results with those calculated by the asymptotic approach.

In the control group $X_1 = 6$, $N_1 = 100$.

Thus \hat{p}_1 = 0.06. A 99% 2 sided confidence interval on p_1 is, from the Pearson-Clopper charts entered at \hat{p} = 0.06, n = 100, (0.02, 0.15) \equiv (p_1, \hat{p}_1) .

The 95% confidence intervals on the odds ratio ρ , namely (ρ , ρ) are

Group 2 vs Control (0.2018, 2.5238)

Group 3 vs Control (0.2018, 2.5238)

Group 4 vs Control (0.1278, 1.2743)

Group 5 vs Control (0.0055, 0.0467)

Group 6 vs Control (0, 0.0027)

Combining these results as discussed previously, we obtain:

Groups 2, 3 vs Control

Since $\stackrel{\circ}{\rho}>1$, $\stackrel{\circ}{\rho}<1$ we have

$$Rel=\frac{1}{\stackrel{\sim}{\rho} + R_1(1 - \stackrel{\sim}{\rho})} = \frac{1}{2.5238 + 0.02(1 - 2.5238)} = 0.401$$

$$\theta = \frac{1}{\rho + p_1(1 - \rho)} = \frac{1}{0.2018 + 0.02(1 - 0.2018)} = 4.592$$

This would be a conservative 100(1 - .05 - .01) = 94% confidence interval.

The corresponding 95% confidence interval based on asymptotic normal theory (0.480, 3.703). We see that the two intervals are qualitatively similar but that the conservative interval is longer, as would be expected.

We now compare the conservative small sample with the approximate large sample intervals for comparisons of groups 4, 5, 6 with the control group. The calculations proceed analogously.

					$\frac{\text{Small Samp}}{\text{on }\theta}$		imate, La nterval	$\frac{\text{arge Sample}}{\text{on }\theta}$
Groups 2,3	vs	Control	. (0.4	401,	4.592)		(0.480,	3.703)
Group 4	vs	Control	. (0.	788,	6.885)		(0.857,	5.474)
Group 5	vs	Control	. (5.2	272,	39.856)		(6.011,	28.859)
Group 6	vs	Control	(6.5	566,	50)	_	sample in	

We see that the two sets of intervals are qualitatively similar however the conservative, small sample intervals are 30%-51% longer than the corresponding asymptotic intervals.

An alternative approximation can be used to calculate conservative confidence intervals on $\theta = p_2/p_1$. Consider again the 2 x 2 table.

	CONTROL	GROUP 2		
DEAD	x ₁	x ₂		
LIVE	Y ₁	Y ₂		
 ,	N ₁	N ₂		

Let p_1 , p_2 denote the probabilities of death in groups 1, 2 respectively. We wish to construct a confidence interval on $p_2/p_1 \equiv \theta$.

Now N₁, N₂ were fixed by the experimenter. Let $r \equiv N_2/N_1$. Suppose we assume the fiction that N₁ $^{\sim}P_o(\lambda)$, N₂ $^{\sim}P_o(r\lambda)$ and that N₁, N₂ in the data are realizations of these two independent random variables. Then X₁, X₂, Y₁, Y₂ can be treated as independent Poisson random variables with means $p_1\lambda$, $p_2\lambda$, $q_1\lambda$, $q_2r\lambda$ respectively. Confidence intervals on p_2/p_1 can be constructed by methods like those discussed in connection with the Poisson approximation approach, (method 3). Namely

$$P \frac{X_{2}}{X_{1} + 1} \frac{1}{F(2X_{1} + 2, 2X_{2}; 1 - \alpha_{1})} \frac{1}{r} \le \frac{P_{2}}{P_{1}} \le \frac{X_{2} + 1}{X_{1}} F(2X_{2} + 2, 2X_{1}; 1 - \alpha_{2}) \frac{1}{r} \ge 1 - \alpha$$

where $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = \alpha$. Now these confidence intervals are conservative because we are introducing additional variability by assuming that N₁, N₂ are random variables rather than fixed constants. The variances of X₁, X₂

are inflated from $N_1p_1q_1$, $N_2p_2q_2$ to N_1p_1 , N_2p_2 by this assumption. Thus the greater are p_1 , p_2 , the more conservative this procedure will be.

We illustrate the application of these intervals with the Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality data and the DeFoe 1, 1, 2, trichloroethane fry mortality data.

First consider the Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality data. The comparisons of Groups 2, 3, 4 vs Control, based on the Poisson approximation, are quite similar to the conservative small sample confidence intervals discussed earlier in this subsection.

Now consider comparisons of Groups 5, 6 with the Control group.

Group 5 vs Control:
$$X_5 = 79$$
, $X_1 = 6$, $X_5 = X_1 = 100$, $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 0.025$

Thus

$$\left(\frac{79}{7} \frac{1}{\text{F(14, 158; .975)}}, \frac{80}{6} \text{ F(160, 12; .975)}\right) = \left(\frac{79}{7} (1.94)^{-1}, \frac{80}{6} (2.77)\right) = (5.82, 36.93)$$

is an approximate 95% confidence interval on p_5/p_1 .

Group 6 vs Control:
$$X_6 = 100$$
, $X_1 = 6$, $X_6 = X_1 = 100$, $X_1 = X_2 = 0.025$

Thus

$$\left(\frac{100}{7} \frac{1}{F(14, 200; .975)}, \frac{101}{6} F(202, 12; .975)\right) = \left(\frac{100}{7} \frac{1}{1.79}, \frac{101}{6}\right)$$

$$(2.75) = (7.98, 46.29)$$

is an approximate 95% confidence interval on p_6/p_1 .

These intervals compare with the conservative, small sample intervals calculated earlier as follows:

	Conservative, Small Sample	Approximate Poisson
Group 5 vs Control	(5.27, 39.86)	(5.82, 36.93)
Group 6 vs Control	(6.57, 50)	(7.98, 46.29)

These intervals are seen to be quite similar.

We now consider the DeFoe 1, 1, 2, trichloroethane data and calculate approximate confidence intervals to compare Groups 5, 6 to the control group. Since $X_1 = 0$ we can only calculate lower confidence bounds.

Group 5 vs Control:
$$X_5 = 9$$
, $X_1 = 0$, $X_5 = X_1 = 40$, $X_1 = 0.05$, $X_2 = 0$.

Thus

$$\frac{9}{1}$$
 $\frac{1}{F(2, 20; .95)} = \frac{9}{3.49} = 2.58$

is a 95% lower confidence bound on p_5/p_1 .

Group 6 vs Control
$$X_6 = 40$$
, $X_1 = 0$, $X_6 = X_1 = 40$, $\alpha_1 = 0.05$, $\alpha_2 = 0$.

Thus

$$\frac{40}{1} \frac{1}{F(2, 82; .95)} = \frac{40}{3.12} = 12.82$$

is a 95% lower confidence bound on p_6/p_1 .

Thus there is strong statistical evidence that the response rates in groups 5 and 6 are substantially greater than that in the control group. The response rate in group 5 is at least $2\frac{1}{2}$ times that in the control group.

D. Method 3 Poisson Approximation

We now consider method 3 for placing confidence intervals on ratios of parameters. This method is based on the Poisson approximation to the binomial distribution and so requires that each p be less than 0.1 or that each p be greater than 0.9 in order that the Poisson approximation be reasonably accurate. Operationally, we will use this approximation if each \hat{p} is less than 0.1 or if each \hat{p} is greater than 0.9. The prototype situation is

	Control	Group 2
Dead	x ₁	x ₂
Live	N ₁ - X ₁	N ₂ - X ₂
	N ₁	N ₂

Let p₁, p₂ denote the response probabilities in groups 1, 2 respectively. We wish to construct 1 - α confidence intervals on p₂/p₁.

Let
$$\lambda_1 = N_1 P_1$$
, $\lambda_2 = N_2 P_2$.

Then if $p_1<.1$, $p_2<.1$ $X_1 \stackrel{\circ}{\sim} P_0$ (λ_1) , $X_2 \stackrel{\circ}{\sim} P_0$ (λ_2) . We can thus pose the problem as one of placing confidence intervals on the ratio of two Poisson means. If $p_1>.9$, $p_2>.9$ it is probably of more interest to place a confidence interval on the ratio q_2/q_1 , where $q_1 \equiv 1-p_1$, $q_2 = 1-p_2$. We are then back in the above situation.

Nelson [24] shows that a 1 - α confidence interval on λ_2/λ_1 is

$$\left[\frac{X_2}{X_1+1}\frac{1}{F(2X_1+2,2X_2;1-\alpha_1)}, \frac{X_2+1}{X_1}F(2X_2+2,2X_1;1-\alpha_2)\right]$$

where F(ν_1 , ν_2 ; γ) represents the upper γ point of the F-distribution with d.f. ν_1 , ν_2 and α_1 + α_2 = α . Now

$$\lambda_2/\lambda_1 \equiv (N_2p_2)/(N_1p_1) = (N_2/N_1)(p_2/p_1)$$

Thus multiplying the above confidence bounds by the factor N_1/N_2 yields confidence bounds on p_2/p_1 . Namely

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ \overline{x_1 + 1} & \frac{1}{F(2x_1 + 2, 2x_2; 1 - \alpha_1)} & \frac{N_1}{N_2}, \frac{x_2 + 1}{X_1} & F(2x_2 + 2, 2x_1; 1 - \alpha_2) \frac{N_1}{N_2} \end{bmatrix}$$

is a 1 - α confidence interval on p_2/p_1 . Often we take α_1 , α_2 to be $\alpha/2$. However for one sided confidence intervals we take $\alpha_1 = \alpha$, $\alpha_2 = 0$ or $\alpha_1 = 0$, $\alpha_2 = \alpha$.

If $X_1=0$ or if $X_2=0$ we have only one sided information about p_1 , p_2 respectively. Thus we can only construct one sided confidence bounds on their ratio. Namely if $X_1>0$, $X_2=0$ then set the lower confidence bound equal to 0 and upper confidence bound on p_2/p_1 becomes

$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} \frac{1}{X_1} F(2, 2X_1; 1 - \alpha) \qquad \text{if } X_2 = 0, X_1 > 0.$$

If $X_1 = 0$, $X_2 > 0$, then we can only get a lower bound on p_2/p_1 . Set the upper bound equal to ∞ and the lower confidence bound becomes

$$x_2 = \frac{1}{F(2, 2x_2; 1 - \alpha)} = \frac{N_1}{N_2}$$
 if $x_1 = 0, x_2 > 0$

If $X_1 = 0$, $X_2 = 0$ the problem is indeterminate.

Nelson [24] presents charts which facilitate the construction of two sided 90%, 95% or 99% confidence intervals on λ_2/λ_1 . However his charts do not apply for the situation when $X_1 = 0$ or $X_2 = 0$. In fact they effectively apply only when $0.1 \le X_2/X_1 \le 10$. The charts are shown in in Figures XIII.3, XIII.4, XIII.5.

To use the Nelson charts

- 1. Enter the value of X_2/X_1 on the horizontal axis.
- 2. Go up to the curve labelled with the X_1 value. (There are two sets of curves, corresponding to upper and lower confidence limits).
- 3. Read the upper and lower limits on the vertical scale.
- 4. Multiply the resulting limits by the ratio N_1/N_2 .

We illustrate the use of this Poisson based procedure on several sets of data. First we consider the Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality data. We pool responses across tanks within groups.

	CONTROL	GROUP 2	GROUP 3	GROUP 4	GROUP 5	GROUP 6
DEAD	6	8	8	13	79	100
LIVE	94	92	92	87	21	0
	100	100	100	100	100	100

We compare various treatment groups with the control group. We will calculate two sided 95 percent, nonsimultaneous confidence intervals. Groups 2 and 3 appear to have response probabilities around 0.10 and group 4 does not seem to be too much beyond this level. We thus stretch our criterion a bit and calculate confidence intervals to compare groups 2, 3, 4 with the control groups.

Note that we could modify the confidence intervals for simultaneity by using Bonferroni's inequality.

Groups 2, 3 vs Control:

$$x_2 = 8, x_1 = 6, x_2 = x_1 = 100, \alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = .025$$

Thus

$$\left(\frac{8}{7} \frac{1}{F(14, 16; .975)}, \frac{9}{6} F(18, 12; .975) = \frac{8}{7}(2.83)^{-1}, \frac{9}{6}(3.11)\right) = (0.404, 4.665).$$

Group 4 vs Control:

$$X_4 = 13$$
, $X_1 = 6$, $N_2 = N_1 = 100$, $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = .025$

Thus

$$\left(\frac{13}{7} \frac{1}{F(14, 26; .975)}, \frac{14}{6} F(28, 12; .975) = \frac{13}{7} (2.45)^{-1}, \frac{14}{6} (2.98)\right) = (0.76, 6.95)$$

Comparing the confidence intervals obtained by methods 1, 2, 3 we see that

	Asymptotic	Conservative Small Sample	Poisson Approximation
Group 2, 3 vs Control	(.480, 3.703)	(.401, 4.592)	(.404, 4.665)
Group 4 vs Control	(.857, 5.474)	(.788, 6.885)	(.76, 6.95)

Thus the asymptotic intervals are shorter than either of the small sample intervals. The small sample intervals are thus more conservative.

We next consider the DeFoe compound ${\it C}$ fry mortality data. We again pool across tanks within groups.

	CONTROL	GROUP 2	GROUP 3	GROUP 4	GROUP 5	GROUP 6
DEAD	0	0	2	1	9	40
LIVE	40	40	38	40	31	0
	40	40	40	41	40	40

Since there are zero responses in the control group (i.e. $X_1 = 0$), we can only calcualte lower confidence bounds.

Group 2 vs Control: Since Group 2 has 0 responses also, the situation
is indeterminate.

Group 3 vs Control: Choose α_1 = .05, α_2 = 0 X_3 = 2, X_1 = 0, X_3 = X_1 = 40

Then

$$\frac{2}{1} \frac{1}{F(2, 4; .95)} = \frac{2}{6.94} = 0.29$$

is a 95 percent lower confidence bound on p_3/p_1 . Thus there is no statistical evidence, at the α = .05 level, that $p_3 > p_1$.

Group 4 vs Control: $X_4 = 1$, $X_1 = 0$ $X_4 = 41$, $X_1 = 40$ Choose $\alpha_1 = .05$, $\alpha_2 = 0$.

Then

$$\frac{1}{1}$$
 $\frac{1}{F(2, 2; .95)}$ $\frac{40}{41} = \frac{40}{41}$ $\frac{1}{19.0} = 0.05$

is a 95 percent confidence bound on p_4/p_1 . Thus there is no statistical evidence, at the α = 0.05 level, that $p_4>p_1$.

In general the confidence intervals that we have calculated are too wide to determine the ratios of the various probabilities with much precision. We must conclude that the data are not sufficient to estimate these ratios very precisely without placing further structure on the problem. One way of imposing such further structure will be discussed in the following sections.

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EXAX2 output from calculation of exact, small sample confidence intervals on the odds ratios between treatments and control Figure XIII.1

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Figure XIII.1 Continued

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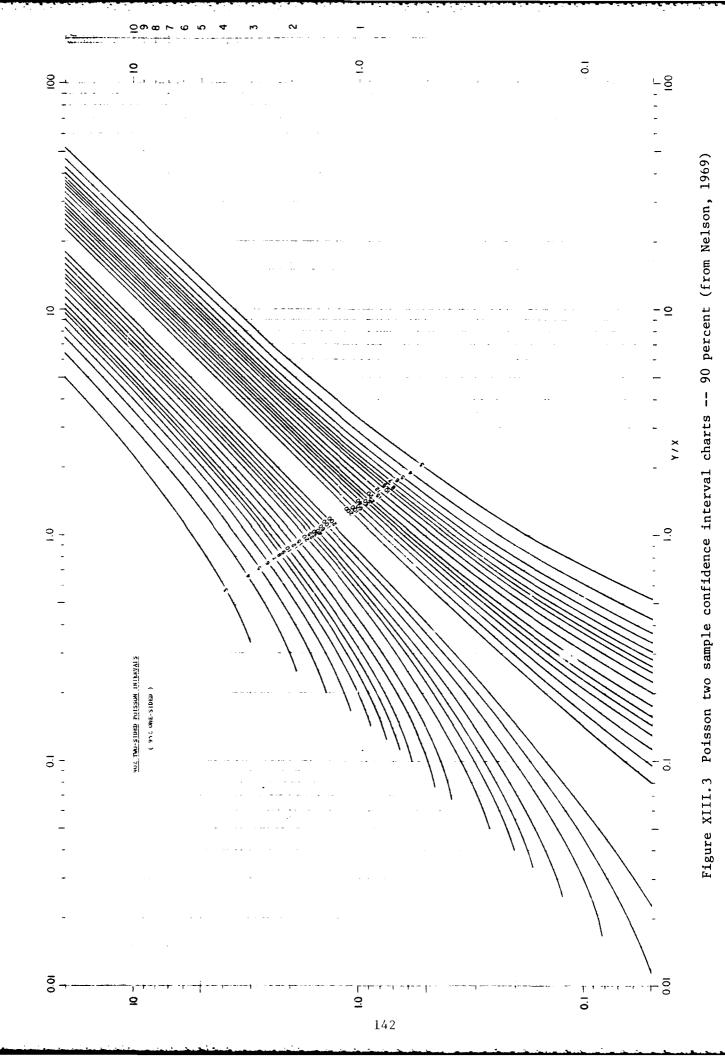
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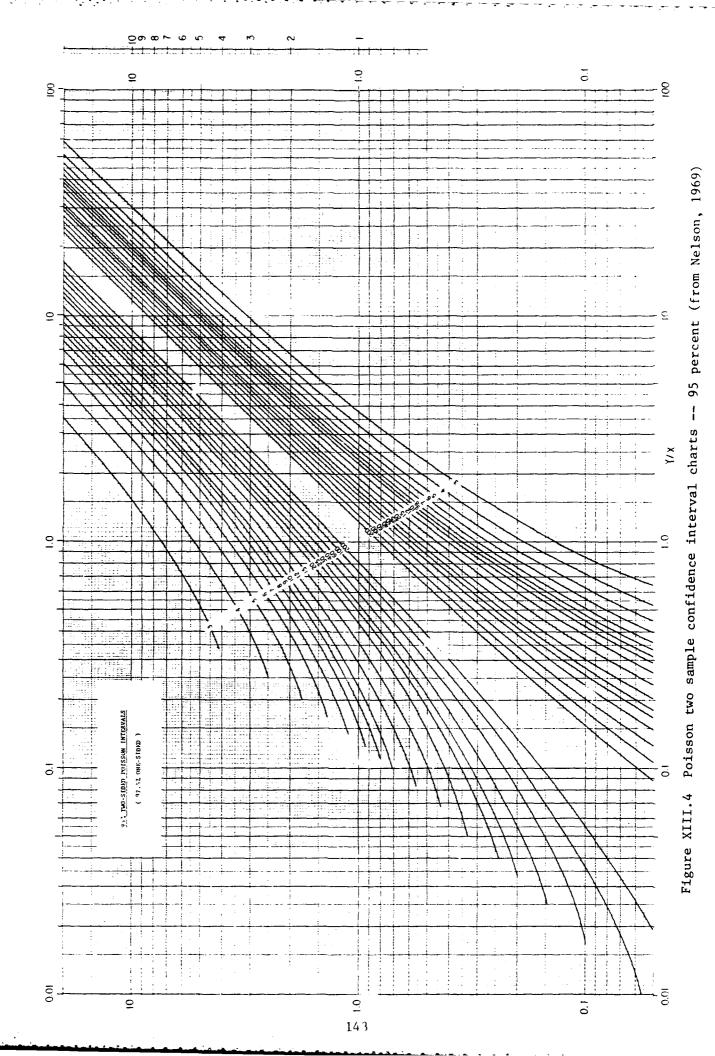
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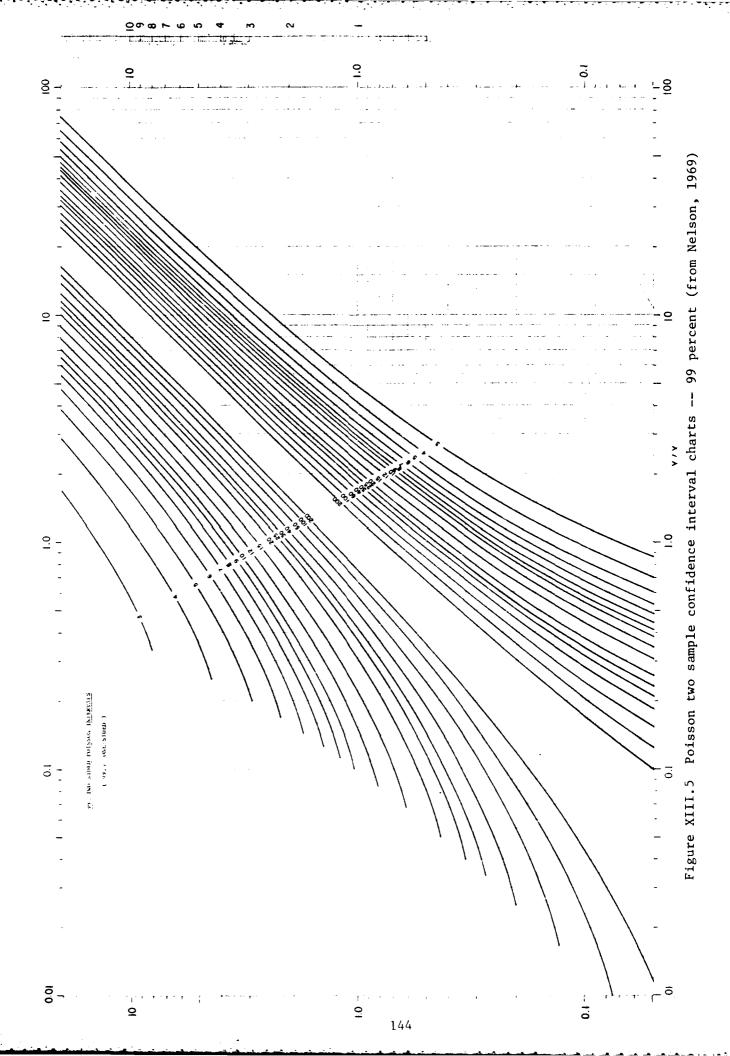
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Figure XIII.2 Continued







XIV. DOSE RESPONSE CURVE ESTIMATION -- PROBIT ANALYSIS

A. Introduction. Dose Response Estimation vs Hypothesis Testing

An alternative approach to estimating acceptable concentration levels is based on fitting dose response models to the data and estimating that concentration, \mathbf{C}_{L} , which results in an increase of at most L in the response rate over and above background level. The dose response curve formulation is pictured schematically in Figure XIV.1. The problem of determining a safe concentration has been transformed from a testing problem (determine which response rates are significantly different than the control rate) to an estimation problem (calculate a lower confidence bound on \mathbf{C}_{L}).

The two formulations are conceptually different and lead to different implications. With the classical hypothesis testing formulation the larger and more precise the experiment the more powerful will be the hypothesis test. Thus lower concentration levels will be found significantly different from the control group and so the acceptable concentration will be decreased. By contrast, with the dose response curve estimation formulation the larger and more precise the experiment, the higher will be the lower confidence bound on C_L and so the acceptable concentration will be increased. This latter situation seems more natural to us for two reasons.

- 1. There is no need to specify rigid sample size requirements in the protocol. People could present any level of evidence regarding safe concentrations that they wish. The more extensive the experiment, the higher will be the lower confidence bound on ${\bf C}_{\bf L}$.
- 2. An investigator conducting toxicity tests in support of petitions to the EPA for discharge permits is induced to carry out more extensive and more precise experimentation by the economics of the situation. He is rewarded for his efforts by demonstrating a greater safe concentration.

OPINION: We feel that increased emphasis should be placed on the fitting and use of dose response curve models in the design of and analysis of data from aquatic toxicity tests.

It should be noted that just because we define C_L in terms of the concentration associated with an increase in response rate of L units over background does <u>not</u> mean that we consider killing 100L percent of the fish to be "acceptable". No increased mortality is really desirable. However by adopting this formulation we can argue that we are limiting our risk to an <u>upper bound</u> on L. The choice of L in a particular situation would of course need to be a biological and a regulatory decision.

We have fitted (or attempted to fit) a number of dose response models to the embryo and fry mortality data. Some of these models are standard while others are nonstandard. Among the standard models fitted are the probit model (Finney [11]) with either logarithmic or untransformed concentration and the logit model with either logarithmic or untransformed concentration levels. Both of these models classically account for background variation by means of Abbott's correction. For example a probit model with Abbott's correction might state

$$p(conc) = p_0 + (1 - p_0) \Phi (\beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln (conc))$$

where p_0 , p(conc) are the response rates at the control and at conc respectively, $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the normal c.d.f., and p_0 , β_0 , β_1 are unknown parameters to be estimated from the model fit. Such a probit model can easily be fitted to the data using SAS PROC PROBIT [12]. The 1979 version of the BMDP package [27] contains a stepwise logistic regression program.

Among nonstandard dose response models tried are a nonstandard probit type model and a "nonparametric" dose response model. The nonstandard probit type model differs from the standard model in the way it handles background response. One version can be written as

$$p(conc) = \Phi (\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln (conc + c))$$

where p(conc) is the response rate at conc, c accounts for the background response, and α_0 , α_1 , c are unknown parameters to be estimated from the model fit. A criticism of Abbott's correction is that it tacitly assumes that background related response and toxicant related response are due to different and independent mechanisms. The nonstandard model assumes that background related responses and toxicant related responses are due to similar mechanisms and thus that background acts like an incremental to-xicant level c. Which (if either) model is more appropriate in a given situation depends on how well they fit the data and on biological judgement. The nonstandard probit model and a large family of other standard and nonstandard dose response models can be fitted by the use of nonlinear regression programs such as SAS PROC NLIN [12] and BMDP programs BMDP3R, BMDPAR[27] (program versions 1977 or later).

We have developed a "nonparametric" dose response model that differs from the more usual parametric models in a number of ways.

- 1. There is no need to make strong parametric assumptions about the form of the dose response model.
- 2. There is no need to be concerned with transformations of the concentration levels.
- 3. There is no need to worry about the parametric form used to correct for background variation.

4. Exact, small sample theory is used to construct conservative lower bounds on safe concentration.

We have developed a special purpose computer program to carry out such nonparametric dose response analyses. It is described in detail in Feder and Sherrill [41], which is included as an appendix to section XVI

We now illustrate inferences about safe concentrations based on the various dose response models discussed above.

B. Probit Analysis Using SAS PROC PROBIT

In this subsection we fit probit models to the fry mortality data from the DeFoe test on compound C and from the Holcombe and Phipps test on compound D. Although we do not adjust the data for tank to tank heterogeneity, the same analyses can be carried out after such adjustments have been made.

We first consider the DeFoe data. The basic data are listed in Figure XIV.2. There are two tanks per treatment group. Concentration values for each group (in units of $\mu g/liter$) have been determined as average values over all determinations and over all tanks within each group. These are denoted as CONCMEAN. Other variables of importance are

DEADESUM = # dead embryos in the tanks after hatch. (After about 5 days).

DEADFSUM = # dead fry after 32 days.

PRPDEADE, PRPDEADF \equiv proportions of dead embryos and fry respectively. LOGCONC \equiv $\log_{10}(\text{CONC})$

Note that the measured concentration in the control group is <u>not</u> zero here and that no fry mortality has occurred in the control group. It is unclear from preliminary plots of proportions of dead fry vs arithmetic and logarithmic concentration (not shown) whether a probit model would better be fitted to arithmetic or to logarithmic concentration. We will try both fits and compare them.

We first fit a standard probit model using arithmatic concentration. The specific model fitted is

$$p(CONC) = c + (1 - c) \Phi(\beta_0 - 5 + \beta_1 CONC)$$

where $\Phi({\:\raisebox{3.5pt}{\text{\circle*{1.5}}}})$ is the standard normal c.d.f., β_o and β_1 are unknown

model parameters that characterize the shape of the response curve, and c is the unknown model parameter that specifies the background rate. (The quantity 5 in the argument of $\Phi(\bullet)$ is due to probit convention). We fit this model to the data with SAS PROC PROBIT by maximum likelihood estimation. The output resulting from this fit appears in Figures XIV.3 - XIV.6. The interpretation of this output is as follows:

 $oxed{1}$ Summary of the maximum likelihood iteration process.

Intercept, Slope $\leftrightarrow \beta_0$, β_1 respectively in the probit model.

c ↔ background rate, or threshold rate.
(Note that if c goes negative at an iteration step
 it is set to 0.).

MU,SIGMA (μ,σ) correspond to the mean and standard deviation of the dose-response distribution.

 μ , σ are related to β_0 , β_1 as $\beta_0 = 5 - \mu/\sigma$, $\beta_1 = 1/\sigma$

These relations can be verified from the entries given in the output.

- The estimated asymptotic variance-covariance matrix of $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1, \hat{c})$. This is based on the Fisher information's inverse.
- The estimated asymptotic variance-covariance matrix of $(\hat{\mu}, (\hat{\sigma}, \hat{c}))$. This is based on the inverse of the estimated Fisher information matrix.

Note: These estimated var-cov martices are the basis of the confidence interval calculations made by the program. The validity of these var-cov estimates depends on having the true state of nature and the maximum likelihood estimates interior to the parameter space. In this fit $\hat{c}=0.003$ with an estimated standard error of 0.03. We thus might consider dropping c from the model.

4) Chi square test for lack of fit of the probit model.

Degrees of freedom \equiv number of groups - number of parameters \equiv 6 - 3 = 3.

Under the null hypothesis of no lack of fit to the model this statistic has a chi square distribution with 3 d.f.

- A plot of the fitted straight line in the probit domain, with the estimated probits of the dose response rates at each concentration level in the data indicated as X's on tho plot.
 - Notes: 1. Probit $(0) = 5 + \Phi^{-1}(0) = -\infty$. However it is plotted as 0 because that is the smallest value used. Similarly, Probit $(1) = 5 + \Phi^{-1}(1) = \infty$, but it is plotted as 10 because that is the largest value used.
 - 2. The observed thresholds at probit values of 0 and 10 seem far away from the fitted line. The standard errors of these points are also very large, so these points are discounted when determining a probit fit. In particular,

$$Var[probit(\hat{p})] = p(1 - p)/n\phi(\Phi^{-1}(p)) \rightarrow \infty \text{ as}$$

$$p \rightarrow 0 \text{ or } 1.$$

Thus these points carry very little weight in the straight line fit in the probit domain.

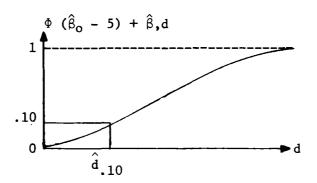
- The estimated background response rate has been removed from the plot. Thus estimates represent increments over background.
- 6 Plot of $\Phi(\hat{\beta}_0 5 + \hat{\beta}_1 \text{ CONC})$ vs CONC.
- 7 For various percentiles of the fitted dose response curve (after adjusting for background), the point estimates of CONCMEAN are given as well as 95% lower and upper confidence bounds on these points.

Note: These percentiles are percentages of the population responding <u>due</u> to the toxicant, after adjusting for <u>background effects</u>.

The point estimates correspond to the percentiles indicated on the plots.

These lower confidence bounds are just the quantities needed to calculate confidence bounds on safe concentrations. Lower 95% two sided bounds correspond to lower 97.5% one sided bounds. Suppose we are willing to tolerate an increase in response of 10 percent due to toxicant causes. What is a lower confidence bound on safe dose?

Consider the dose response curve (adjusted for background rate).



Now
$$\hat{d}_{.10} = \frac{\Phi^{-1}(.10) + 5 - \hat{\beta}_{0}}{\hat{\beta}_{1}} = 32.65$$
 from Figure XIV.6.

The lower 97.5 percent confidence interval on $d_{.10}$ is - 45.97. It is thus totally uninformative due to the gentle slope of the dose response curve (0.036) and relatively large standard error of the slope (0.014).

Note that the confidence bounds on the percentiles of the dose response curve are based on Fieller's theorem. See Finney [11], section 4.7 (esp.eqns (4.37), (4.38)) for details.

We now consider the chi square test statistic for goodness of fit in more detail. The chi square statistic can be used for a number of purposes. The statistic given in 4 is

CHI-SQUARE =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{6} \frac{\left(o_{i} - N_{i}\hat{p}_{i}\right)^{2}}{N_{i}\hat{p}_{i}\hat{q}_{1}}$$

Where $0_i = \#$ observed responses in the i-th treatment group

 $N_i = \#$ fish in the i-th treatment group

 \hat{p}_i = estimated response probability in the i-th treatment group.

 $\hat{q}_i = 1 - \hat{p}_i$.

$$\hat{p}_{i} = \hat{c} + (1 - \hat{c}) \Phi ((\hat{\beta}_{o} - 5) + \hat{\beta}_{1}d_{i}) \equiv$$

$$\hat{c} + (1 - \hat{c}) \Phi\left(\frac{d_1 - \hat{\mu}}{\hat{\sigma}}\right) \qquad i = 1, \ldots, 6.$$

The values of these quantities for the 6 treatment groups are as follows:

Trt Grp	<u>0</u>	<u>N</u>	<u> </u>	<u>NŶ</u>	<u> N</u> PQ	$\frac{\left(0 - \hat{NP}\right)^2}{\hat{NPQ}}$
1	0	40	0.0100	0.3996	0.3956	0.4036
2	0	40	0.0115	0.4586	0.4534	0.4639
3	2	40	0.0154	0.6152	0.6058	3.1655
4	1	41	0.0300	1.2300	1.1931	0.0443
5	9	40	0.2397	9.5876	7.2896	0.0474
6	40	40	0.9979	39.9144	0.0854	0.0858
					$\overline{x^2}$	= 4.2105

We see that this chi square statistic agrees with that calculated in 4 of the PROBIT output. We should break out the cell by cell contributions in order to ensure that a large value of chi square is not due to one or a few cells with very low expected frequency. Just one observed response in such a cell can inflate the chi square statistic tremendously. In our case this does not occur.

Note that the applicability of the asymptotic chi square approximation to the distribution of χ^2 is doubtful here due to the small expected sample sizes. Namely

i	1_1_	2	3	4	5	6	
NŶi	0.40	0.46	0.62	1.23	9.59	39.91	
Nĝi	39.60	39.54	39.38	39.77	30.41	0.09	

Dixon and Massey [13] page 238 state that for the approximate asymptotic χ^2 distribution to be close "the sample size N must be sufficiently large that none of the F_i 's (i.e. $N_i\hat{p}_i$ or $N_i\hat{q}_i$) is less than 1 and not more than 20 per cent of the F_i 's are less than 5." This criterion is clearly not met in the above example.

Since no control group mortality was observed and since the estimated background rate is compatible with 0 ($\hat{c} = 0.0031$, stderr(\hat{c}) = .0288) it was decided to refit the model specifying that c = 0. This simplification will reduce the standard errors of estimates considerably.

The fit is shown in Figure XIV.7 and the associated confidence intervals are given in Figure XIV.8. The point estimates the slope and intercept are seen to be very similar to those based on the threshold model fit in Figure XIV.3. In particular

$$\hat{\beta}_{o} \qquad \hat{\beta}_{1} \qquad \hat{c} \qquad \hat{\sigma}(\hat{\beta}_{o}) \qquad \hat{\sigma}(\hat{\beta}_{1}) \qquad \hat{\sigma}(\hat{c})$$
 Threshold Model 2.537 0.036 0.003 0.834 0.014 0.029 No Threshold Model 2.616 0.035 0 (by 0.257 0.006 0(by defn.) defn.)

We see that the point estimates of $\beta_0,\ \beta_1,\ c$ have not changed by much, but the standard errors have decreased markedly. Thus if there is no statistical evidence of background mortality we should eliminate it from the model to increase estimation precision.

Let's see how this affects the percentile point estimates and lower confidence bounds on them.

No Threshold Fit

Threshold Fit

Percentile	Point Estimate	Lower 97.5 Per- cent Confiden- ce Bound	Point Estimate	Lower 97.5 Per- cent Confidence Bound
1	3.773	-157.377	1.657	-17.646
3	16.086	-109.518	14.388	0.000
5	22.606	- 84.331	21.130	8.900
10	32.647	- 45.967	31.511	21.622
15	39.421	- 20.657	38.515	29.364
20	44.805	- 1.246	44.082	35.034
30	53.572	27.152	53.146	43.539
50	68.064	54.847	68.130	56.372
70	82.557	67.675	83.115	68.459
80	91.323	73.775	92.179	75.594

We see that the point estimates under the nonthreshold fit are slightly lower than the point estimates under the threshold fit in the lower portion of the curve.

However the increased precision of estimation under the nonthreshhold fit results in substantial increases in the lower confidence bounds.

Suggestion:

1. If there is no observed response in the control group.

- and 2. If the control group response rate, as estimated from the dose response fit including threshold is nonsignificant.
- and 3. If there is no a priori reason to expect background rate

then, eliminate background threshold parameter from the model.

This raises in a conjecture: Suppose we fit a nonthreshold model even when a non zero background rate exists. We conjecture that the point estimates of nonthreshold response rates will be estimates of quantities lower than the true response rates. However the increased precisions of these estimates may well result in more accurate lower confidence bounds on the "true" response percentiles. This is a bias-variance trade off.

It is interesting to note that Charles Stephan [42], page 78 ff discusses Abbott's correction in connection with the estimation of LC-50 concentration in acute toxicity tests. He comments "...Abbott's formula ... is a statistically sound way of correcting for control mortality if, and only if, the cause of the control mortality does not make the rest of the test organisms more susceptible to the toxicant. This assumption is usually questionable in acute mortality tests with aquatic animals. ... If control mortality is below a specified minimum...it should be reported along with the results of the test, but correction of the LC50 for this mortality would seem to be a meaningless exercise. ..."
It is interesting that we arrive at a similar suggestion, based on different reasoning. Our motivation is a bias-variance tradeoff.

The previous PROC PROBIT analyses on the DeFoe data treated concentration without any transformation. We also tried to fit a probit model using log concentration. Folklore states that a probit or logit fit will better fit the response vs logarithmic concentration relation than the response vs arithmetic concentration relation.

Finney [11] page 8-13 recommends using \log concentration. Stephan [42] also recommends the use of a logarithmic transformation of concentration on a routine basis.

Finney, pages 9ff states "The frequency distribution of tolerances, as measured on the natural scale (i.e. arithmetic scale - P.F.) is usually markedly skew, but often a simple transformation of the scale of measurement will convert it to a distribution approximately of the familiar Gaussian or normal form ... normalization can often .e effected by expressing the tolerances in terms of the logarithms of the concentrations instead of the absolute vlues. Indeed this transformation is now standard practice ... the justification is the widespread applicability of the normal distribution as an adequate approximation to the truth. ..."

Stephan, page 75, states "...Whenever any method is used to analyze concentration mortality data, whether or not a transformation such as probit, logit, or angle is used on the mortality data, the logarithmic transformation should probably be used on the concentration data. All of the methods assume that the concentration-mortality curve is linear, and it seems to be generally accepted that the curve is more likely to be linear if log concentration is used. ..."

We show by example of the DeFoe 1, 1, 2, trichle coethane data that the logarithmic transformation of concentration provides a much poorer fit of the probit model than does arithmetic concentration. The moral is that each time we fit a probit, logit, or other dose response model we should have an open mind as to using untransformed concentration, logarithmic concentration, or some other function of concentration. We should transform concentration in a manner suitable for each individual data set.

We first tried to fit the probit model with background response to logarithmic concentration. The attempted fit would <u>not</u> converge. To improve convergence performance we refitted the DeFoe data with logarithmic concentration using a <u>specified background rate of 0 (the observed level)</u>. The output appears in Figures XIV.9. The maximum likelihood algorithm converges, however the resulting probit model is <u>not</u> an adequate fit to the data as indicated by the highly significant residual chi square statistic. (Chi square = 47.6774 with 4d.f.)

We break out the components of the chi square statistic by group, as discussed previously, to determine whether the very large chi square value is due just to one or two components with very small expected responses but with one or two observed responses. Such components can greatly distort the overall chi square.

Log ₁₀ (Conc)	Trt Grp	0	N	<u>\$</u>	Np̂	Νρ̂q̂	$\frac{(0 - N\hat{p})^2}{N\hat{p}\hat{q}}$
-1.3098	1	0	40	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
0.29907	2	0	40	0.000015	0.00060	0.00060	0.00060
0.7764	3	2	40	0.0025428	0.10171	0.101455	35.518
1.1706	4	1	41	0.0476	1.9516	1.8587	0.4872
1.6840	5	9	40	0.4227	16.908	9.7610	6.4068
2.1673	6	40	40	0.884	35.36	4.102	5.249
							17 (()

47.662

We see the third treatment group contributes the most to the statistic. It has a very small expected frequency and two observed responses. If this were the only large deviation between data and model, we might be inclined to consider the possibility of a reasonable probit fit with the exception of an outlier group. However, even if we disregard this group, the components of chi square from the remaining cells sum to 12.144 with 3d.f. This value is still significant at the 0.01 level, even after the largest component has been deleted. We thus conclude that the model does not fit the data well. This, coupled with probit plots suggests

the inappropriateness of the probit fit after a logarithmic transformation of concentration. The probit fit to untransformed concentration is superior in this case.

We now consider the Holcombe and Phipps compound D data. A listing of these data is contained in Figure XIV.10. The variable names correspond to those of the DeFoe data. The test consisted of six groups (control + 5 toxicant concentrations) and four tanks per group. Note that the control group concentration is O and there is a nonzero threshold response rate.

Probit models were fitted to the fry mortality data after pooling tanks within concentration groups. SAS PROC PROBIT was use to fit probit models both to concentration and to $\log_{10}(\text{concentration})$. These fits included background effects, to be fitted by maximum likelihood.

The probit fit vs untransformed concentration appears in Figures XIV.11, XIV.12. The residual chi square statistic is quite small (0.3361 with 3d.f.) signifying a good fit to the data. Figure XIV.12 contains the estimated percentiles of the probit response curve, adjusted for background, along with lower and upper 95 percent confidence limits calculated by use of Fieller's Theorem. For example for the 10th percentile the estimate for C₁₀ is 78.77 while a lower 97.5 percent confidence bound is 58.72.

One difference between the fits to the DeFoe and to the Holcombe and Phipps data should be noted. In the DeFoe data no mortality was observed in the control group and the threshold response rate was estimated to be $\hat{c} = 0.003$ with an asymptotic standard error of 0.029. Thus there was no evidence of background mortality and we markedly improved precision of the fit by deleting the background correction.

In the case of the Holcombe and Phipps compound D data we observe X = 6 deaths within the control group, with each of the 4 tanks exhibiting at least one death. Thus we know that there is background variation. From our probit fit with arithmetic dosage we estimate $\hat{c}=0.0718$ with an asymptotic standard error of 0.016. Thus \hat{c} is 4.5 asymptotic standard deviations from 0 and so is highly statistically significant.

We now fit a probit model to the same data using \log_{10} (concentration). The estimated parameter values, their estimated asymptotic variance-covariance matrix, and the residual chi square statistic appear in Figure XIV.13. The residual chi square statistic is 0.5046 with 3d.f., which is very small, thus indicating a good fit to the data¹. We thus have

Note that the chi square value 0.2287, given by SAS in Figure XIV. 13 is incorrect in this case. It seems to be omitting the control group contribution to the chi square statistic. This problem has been brought to the attention of the program developer and has been corrected in later versions of the program.

good probit fits to the data using both arithmetic and logarithmic concentration.

The estimated background level is $\hat{c}=0.0738$ with a standard error of 0.0156. Thus \hat{c} is 4.73 standard deviations from 0 and so is highly statistically significant.

The estimated percentiles (after adjusting for control group mortality) and 95 percent confidence intervals (by Fieller's theorem) are shown in Figure XIV.14. The lower confidence bound is a 97.5 percent one sided bound. This display is analogous to that in Figure XIV.12.

We have thus fitted two distinct models which seem to fit the data well: the probit model with arithmetic concentration (Figure XIV.11) and the probit model with logarithmic concentration (Figure XIV.13). The parameter estimates associated with these two fits are somewhat different. Namely

Arithmetic (StdErr)	Logarithmic (StdErr)
$\hat{\mu}$ 109.916 (3.638) $\hat{\sigma}$ 24.300 (3.861) \hat{c} 0.0718(0.016)	2.028 (0.016) 0.1044(0.015) 0.0738(0.016)

We see that the estimated background levels are somewhat similar, however the estimates $\hat{\mu},~\hat{\sigma}$ are very different.

Even though the parameter estimates differ considerably, the model fits may still be very similar. We compare the estimated response distribution percentiles and associated lower confidence bounds in Figures XIV.12, XIV.14 for the arithmetic and logarithmic concentration fits respectively. These are shown below.

Logarithmic (Figure XIV.14)

		Lower 97.5%		Lower 97.5 % Conf
<u>Percentile</u>	<u>Estimate</u>	Conf. Bound	Estimate	Bound
1	53.39	22.40	60.97	45.76
2	60.01	31.92	65.10	50.13
3	64.21	37.95	67.87	53.12
5	69.95	46.15	71.83	57.47
10	78.77	58.72	78.38	64.83
15	84.73	67.13	83.14	70.29
20	89.46	73.77	87.12	74.92
30	97.17	84.43	94.03	83.01

The point estimates of the response distribution percentiles corresponding to the arithmetic and logarithmic fits are quite similar beyond

the third percentile. However there is considerable discrepancy between corresponding lower confidence bounds on safe dose, based on each of the two fits — below the 10th percentile! Below the third percentile the discrepancy is fifty percent or more.

How can we choose between the two fits?

1. Prior knowledge or mechanistic information

None here. Since the probit model is an empirical model, no much in the way of mechanistic arguments will distinguish between the two fits.

2. Magnitude of residual chi square

Arithmetic fit Residual chi square = 0.336 with 3d.f. $(\alpha = 0.953)$

Logarithmic fit Residual chi square = 0.505 with 3 d.f. $(\alpha = 0.918)$

Both chi square values are quite small and the question of which one is larger is probably just a matter of chance fluctuations. Therefore we should <u>not</u> use these two statistically insignificant values to distinguish between the fits.

3. Appearances of plots of predicted and observed responses

Scatterplots of predicted and observed responses vs arithmetic concentration are shown in Figures XIV.15, XIV.16. Similar plots vs logarithmic concentration are shown in Figures XIV.17, XIV.18. The probit plots (Figures XIV.15, XIV.17) indicate greater discrepancies between observed and predicted responses (after adjusting both for background) at the low percentiles of the logarithmic concentration fit than of the arithmetic concentration fit. Similarly at the highest treatment group. Thus the arithmetic concentration fit seems to be a (slightly) better approximation to the data at the low percentiles than does the logarithmic concentration fit.

4. <u>Conservativeness</u>. Below the 25th percentile the lower confidence bounds based on the arithmetic concentration fit are lower than those based on the logarithmic concentration fit. The discrepancy is especially noticeable for the low percentiles, in particular below the 10th percentile. Above the 10th percentile both lower bounds are similar. Thus the arithmetic concentration fit seems to be more conservative than the logarithmic concentration fit at the low percentile.

Opinion I would prefer the arithmetic concentration fit in this case. However further experimentation at the low concentrations would be needed to distinguish between the differing conclusions at the low percentiles.

Alternative analysis ignoring background

We remarked with respect to the analysis of the DeFoe data that an alternative way of handling background mortality is to ignore it. The hope is that the improved precision will offset the downward bias and result in higher values for lower confidence bounds on safe dose.

Note: If the control group response rate is significantly different from 0, as is the case with the Holcombe and Phipps data, we would not expect the dose response fit ignoring background to be a good fit to the data. Probit models ignoring background response, fitted to both arithmetic and logarithmic concentrations, show large and highly significant residual chi square statistics 28.96 and 65.03 respectively with 4d.f. The plots of fitted and observed responses vs concentration also show discrepancies.

We now compare the percentile point estimates and their lower confidence bounds based on the fit ignoring background response with those based on the fit including background response. Comparisons pertain to the fit vs untransformed concentration.

Background Included	Background Excluded

Percentile	Point Estimate	Lower 97.5% Conf. Bound	Point Estimate	Lower 97.5% Conf. Bound
1	53.39	22.403	-7.48	-24.234
3	64.21	37.946	13.37	0.648
5	69.95	46.147	24.41	13.197
7	74.05	52.006	32.33	21.991
10	78.77	58.715	41.42	32.626
15	84.73	67.135	52.89	45.860
20	89.46	73.775	62.01	56.369
25	93.53	79.421	69.83	64.178
50	109.92	101.288	101.40	97.761

We see that in this example, with the background level many standard deviations from 0, the bias-variance trade off is such that it does not pay to reduce the assumed background response level to 0 in order to lessen the standard deviation.

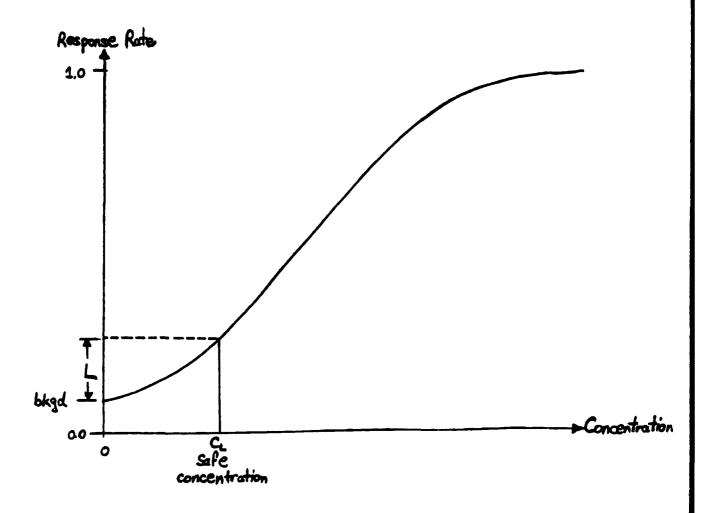


Figure XIV.1 Schematic representation of dose response curve formulation

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Figure XIV.2 Basic data

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Figure XIV.3 Output from PROC PROBIT fit to DeFoe fry mortality data -- arithmetic concentration

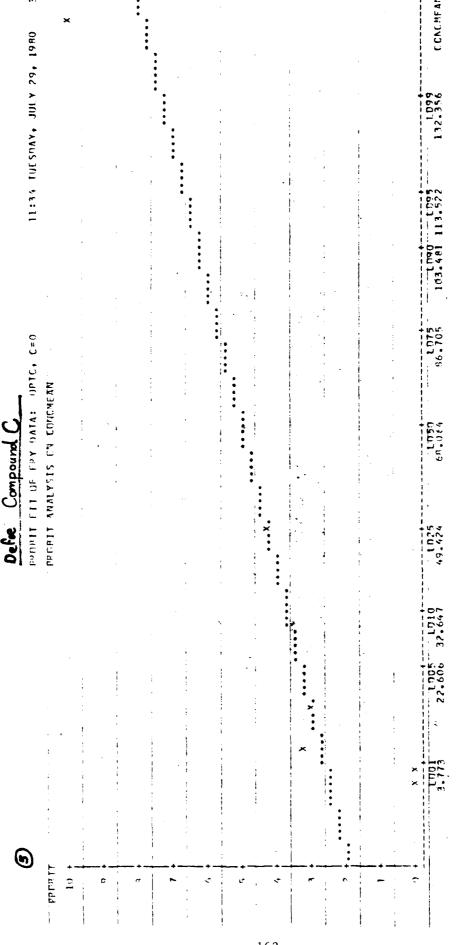


Figure XIV.4 Output from PROC PROBIT fit to DeFoe fry mortality data -- arithmetic concentration

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Figure XIV.5 Output from PROC PROBIT fit to DeFoe fry mortality data -- arithmetic concentration

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Figure XIV.6 Output from PROC PROBIT fit to DeFoe fry mortality data -- arithmetic concentration

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Figure XIV.7 PROC PROBIT fit to DeFoe fry mortality data -- no background correction

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Figure XIV.8 PROC PROBIT fit to DeFoe fry mortality data -- no background correction

Defoe Compound C -- No threshold

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PROC PROBIT fit to DeFoe fry mortality data -- logarithmic transformation of concentration Figure XIV.9

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Figure XIV.10 Basic data

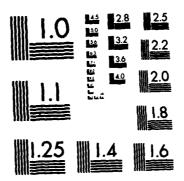
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Output from PROC PROBIT fit to Holcombe and Phipps fry mortality data -- arithmetic concentration Figure XIV.11

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Figure XIV.12 Output from PROC PROBIT fit to Holcombe and Phipps fry mortality data -- arithmetic concentration

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Output from PROC PROBIT fit to Holcombe and Phipps fry mortality data -- logarithmic concentration Figure XIV.13

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-- logarithmic Output from PROC PROBIT fit to Holcombe and Phipps fry mortality data concentration

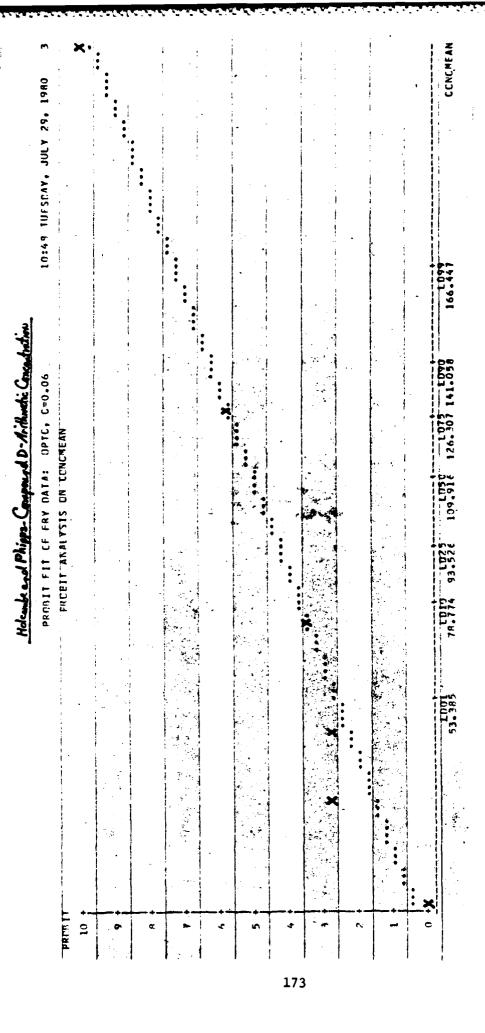


Figure XIV.15 Plots of observed and predicted based on probit fit -- arithmetic concentration

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Figure XIV.16 Plots of observed and predicted based on probit fit -- arithmetic concentration

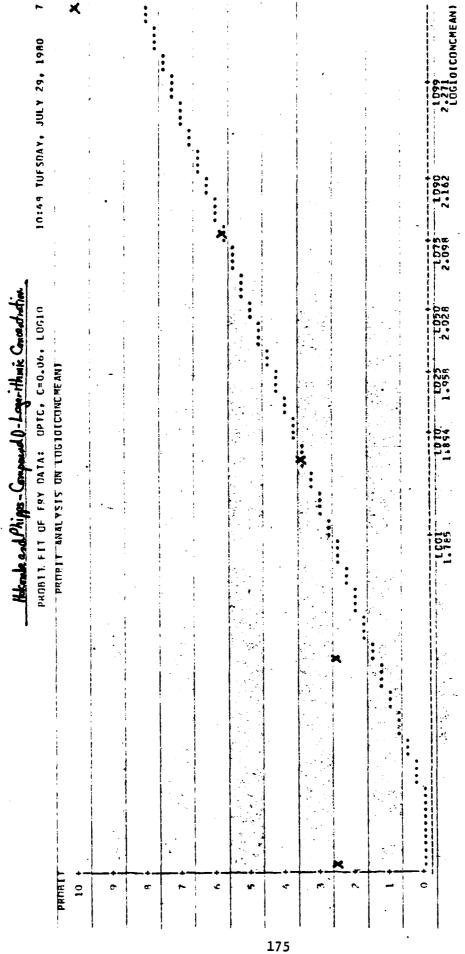


Figure XIV.17 Plots of observed and predicted based on probit fit -- logarithmic concentration

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	1.765	1,958 2,028	2.098 2.162 2.27 10G10(CONCMEAN)

Figure XIV.18 Plots of observed and predicted based on probit fit -- logarithmic concentration

XV. DOSE RESPONSE CURVE ESTIMATION -- MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD ESTIMATION BY NONLINEAR LEAST SQUARES REGRESSION

We have seen in the previous section how standard dose response models can be fitted to the data by use of SAS PROC PROBIT. This procedure fits a probit model to the data, with several possible variations. Namely it fits the model

$$p(x) = c + (1 - c)\Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x)$$

where x = concentration or log (concentration), c is the background rate, and β_0 , β_1 are unknown parameters to be estimated from the data. p(x) is the response probability corresponding to x. The value of c may be known or unknown. Estimation is done by maximum likelihood, based on binomial theory.

Jennrich and Moore [43] show that for distributions in the exponential family, maximum likelihood calculations can be carried out by means of nonlinear least squares regression calculations. This applies, in particular to models based on the binomial distribution.

Thus dose response curves can be fitted to the data by use of appropriate nonlinear regression programs. Both SAS [12] (PROC NLIN) and BMDP [27] (P3R and PAR) contain nonlinear regression programs that can carry out these calculations. See Jennrich and Moore [43] for a discussion of the theory underlying the relation between maximum likelihood estimation and nonlinear regression in the exponential family. We illustrate the methodology with the use of SAS PROC NLIN. However any nonlinear regression program with capability to carry out iteratively reweighted least squares (i.e. allow weights to be functions of the model paramters) would suffice.

SAS PROC PROBIT also calculates lower and upper confidence bounds on concentration values corresponding to various response curve percentile (after adjusting for background), by use of Fieller's theorem (Finney [11] pp 78-79). We illustrate how these confidence bounds can be calculated, based on the parameter estimates of the fit and their asymptotic variance-covariance matrix.

Before discussing the details of fitting dose response curves by means of nonlinear regression programs. We discuss some of the reasons that one might wish to do this.

1. The data analyst may have a general purpose nonlinear regression program available but no special purpose dose response estimation program. Thus the general tool can be used without modification instead of having to write a special purpose program.

2. A very wide variety of models can be fitted to the data by use of general nonlinear regression. PROC PROBIT is rather limited in the extent of models it will fit. Namely it will fit only a probit model using concentration or log concentration. It will adjust for background effects only by Abbott's correction.

We may wish to fit models other than the probit, e.g. the logit model, or even more complex models that incorporate both the probit and logit models as special cases. Background effects might be modelled as additive concentrations rather than by Abbott's correction. Namely,

$$p(x) = \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \log (c + c_0))$$

where c_0 , the background effect, represents an alternative way of accounting for background. Such a model, although non-standard, can easily be fitted by nonlinear regression techniques. Also, transformations of concentration levels other than the logarithmic are useful. For example the square root transformation.

- 3. PROC PROBIT automatically inflates variance and covariance estimates estimates and confidence interval bounds by heterogeneity factors whenever the probit model does not fit the data (as determined by the residual chi square statistic). This is not always what we wish to do. PROC NLIN does not inflate variance estimates by heterogeneity factors.
- 4. We can calculate and save predicted and residual values and thus easily construct residual plots.

It should be noted that PROC NLIN will <u>not</u> compute confidence intervals on response curve distribution percentiles by use of Fieller's Theorem, as PROC PROBIT does. However we show in the subsequent discussion how we can carry out these calculations fairly easily, using either a hand calculator or a small computer program, once the parameter estimates and their asymptotic variances and covariances have been determined.

We now consider three examples of fitting dose response models to fry mortality data by use of SAS PROC NLIN. We use the Holcombe and Phipps fry mortality data in all the examples. The models fitted are:

$$p(conc) = c + \overline{c}\Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 conc)$$

$$p(conc) = c + \overline{c}e^{\beta_0} + \beta_1 conc / \left(1 + e^{\beta_0} + \beta_1 conc\right)$$

$$p(conc) = \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 log_{10}(conc + c))$$

All the models are fitted based on binomial distribution theory after pooling data across tanks within groups. This is the way that PROC PROBIT fits models and is appropriate if there is no tank to tank heterogeneity within groups. In the presence of tank to tank heterogeneity we can first adjust the data by an adjustment factor and then pool across tanks within groups.

The first model fit is a repeat of a model we fitted by PROC PROBIT and serves to verify that we can duplicate the PROC PROBIT fits by nonlinear regression. The second model is a logit model and illustrates that we can fit alternative models with PROC NLIN and that the probit and logit model fits result in very similar inferences.

The third model fit treats the background as an additive concentration rather than adjusting for it by Abbott's correction. This sort of model would be appropriate if the mechanism of response due to background sources is the same as the mechanism of response due to the substance under test.

We now discuss the formulation of fitting dose response curves by means of nonlinear regression techniques.

Suppose that there are I concentration groups (both control and treatment) and that the i-th group contains N_i subjects and has X_i responses. Let $\mathbf{p_i}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ denote the response probability within the i-th group. Then $\mathbf{X_i} \sim \text{Binomial}(\mathbf{N_i}, \mathbf{p_i}(\boldsymbol{\theta}))$.

The form of $p_i(\theta)$ is specified by the form of the dose response model. For example in model 1, $p_i(\theta) = c + \bar{c}\Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 conc_i)$, where $\theta = (\beta_0, \beta_1, c)$ is the unknown parameter vector, to be estimated by least squares.

Under the model assumptions X has meen $\mu_{1}(\theta)$ and variance $\sigma_{1}^{2}(\theta)$, where

$$\mu_{\mathbf{i}}(\theta) = N_{\mathbf{i}} p_{\mathbf{i}}(\theta)$$

$$\sigma_{\mathbf{i}}^2(\theta) = N_{\mathbf{i}} p_{\mathbf{i}}(\theta) (1 - p_{\mathbf{i}}(\theta)).$$

The nonlinear regression procedure optimizes the function

$$Q(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{I} (x_i - \mu_i(\theta))^2 w_i(\theta)$$

where $w_1(\theta) = 1/\sigma_1^2(\theta)$. Jennrich and Moore [43] show that optimizing $Q(\theta)$ by the Gauss-Newton method is equivalent to fitting the dose response

curve by maximum likelihood estimation.

We fit the models to the Holcombe and Phipps compound D data. We first consider, $p_i(\theta) = c + \overline{c}\Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 conc_1)$. The results of fitting this model in the standard manner with PROC PROBIT are shown in Figure XIV.11.

We first discuss the NLIN commands needed to produce the output. See the SAS 79 manual [12], pp 317-329, for further details.

The model is

$$\boldsymbol{\mu_i(\boldsymbol{\theta})} = \boldsymbol{N_i}[\mathbf{c} + \overline{\mathbf{c}}\boldsymbol{\Phi}(\boldsymbol{\beta_0} + \boldsymbol{\beta_1}\mathbf{d_i})] \equiv \boldsymbol{N_i}\boldsymbol{p_i}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

where $(\beta_0, \beta_1, c) \equiv \emptyset$ are to be estimated by weighted least squares. The weights are $w_i \equiv w_i(\emptyset) = 1/[N_i p_i(\emptyset)(i - p_i(\emptyset))]$. The fitting algorithm also uses the derivatives of the mean value function. These are:

$$\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \beta_0} = N_i \overline{c} \phi (\beta_0 + \beta_1 d_i)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \beta_1} = N_i \overline{c} d_i \phi (\beta_0 + \beta_1 d_i)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial c} = N_i [1 - \phi (\beta_0 + \beta_i d_i)]$$

where $\phi(x)$, $\Phi(x)$ represent the standard normal probability density function and cumulative distribution function respectively.

The SAS commands needed to generate this fit are given below

```
PROC NLIN BEST=20 METHOU=GAUSS;

PARAMETERS BC=-5.0 TO -4.0 BY 0.25

S1=0.0 TO 0.10 BY 0.025

C=0.03 TO C.11 BY 0.02;

BOUND 0<=C<=1.0;

ARG=B0+B1*CONCMEAN;

ARG=MAX(ARG,-5.0);

BIGPHI=PROBNOM(ARG);

SMLPHI=0.3989*EXP(-0.5*ARG**2);

PROB=C+(1.0-C)*BIGPHI;

MODEL DEADFSUM=PROB*FRYSUM;

DER.B1=(1.0-C)*SMLPHI*FRYSUM;

DER.C=(1.0-BIGPHI)*FRYSUM;

DER.C=(1.0-BIGPHI)*FRYSUM;

AUTPUT OUT=HULPHIA PREDICTED=PROFSM RESIDUAL=RSDFSM;

WEIGHT =1.0/(FRYSUM*PRUB*(1.0-PRUB));

TITLEZ PROBIT MODEL FIT WITH ABBOTT"S CORRECTION--UNTRANSFORMED CONCENTRATION
```

Line 1 instructs NLIN to fit by the Gauss-Newton method. NLIN can also fit models by use of the method of steepest descent or the Marquardt method. The Marquardt method is a compromise between Gauss-Newton and steepest descent. Sometimes near the optimum, steepest descent or Marquardt methods take smaller steps and in different directions than the Gauss-Newton method and so are less prone to overshoot the optimum. Thus one optimization method will sometimes produce convergence when another one does not. The BEST = 20 command instructs NLIN to print out the locations and error sums of squares values that it calculates in the preliminary grid search to determine starting values for the iterative portion of the search.

Line 2 specifies parameter values and/or ranges of parameter values that NLIN should use for a preliminary grid search to arrive at starting values for the iterative phase.

Line 3 specifies bounds on the parameters. If the parameters exceed these bounds at any time during the iterative process they are forced back into the permissible region.

Line 4 contains the model specification. The variable DEADFSUM represents the mortality within the i-th group. FRYSUM is the total number of fish exposed (pooled over tanks within groups) and PROB is the response probability in the i-th group. The SAS program statements between lines 3 and 4 are used in the specification of the model in line 4.

Line 5 contains expressions for the derivatives $\partial\mu/\partial\beta_0$, $\partial\mu/\partial\beta_1$, $\partial\mu/\partial c$ respectively.

Line 6 specifies that the predictions and residuals from the fit be calculated and saved for future use.

Line 7 specifies the weights that are to be used in the weighted least squares fit. Note that these weights are functions of the model parameters (through PROB). They are updated following each iteration.

The output from these commands appears in Figures XV.1 to XV.4. Figure XV.1 contains a listing of the Holcombe and Phipps data. Figure XV.2 contains a summary of the parameter values and residual sums of squares associated with the 20 best points in the preliminary grid search. The point with smallest weighted residual sum of squares is used to start the iterative Gauss-Newton search procedure. The results of the Gauss-Newton iteration are summarized in Figure XV.3. It converges after 8 steps. Figures XV.4 contains statistics based on the model converged to in Figure XV.3. The upper portion of the page contains an analysis of variance table based on weighted sums of squares. The middle portion of the page contains parameter estimates and asymptotic standard errors. The bottom of the page contains the asymptotic correlation matrix among the parameter estimates. We compare these results with those in Figure XIV.11.

Several points need to be remembered in making the comparison.

- 1. We are fitting the model $p(\hat{\beta}) = c + \bar{c} \Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 conc)$ whereas PROC PROBIT parameterizes the model as $p(\hat{\beta}) = c + \bar{c} \Phi((\beta_0 5) + \beta_1 conc)$. Thus the estimates $\hat{\beta}_1$, \hat{c} in the two fits should agree while the PROC NLIN estimate of $\hat{\beta}_0$ should be 5 smaller than the corresponding PROC PROBIT estimate. Comparison of the estimates shows that this is the case.
- 2. The residual chi square (0.3361) calculated by SAS PROC PROBIT is the same as the (weighted) residual sum of squares in the PROC NLIN fit. Thus this residual sum of squares provides a test of goodness of fit of the model.
- 3. The asymptotic variances and covariances calculated by PROC NLIN need to be adjusted before being compared to those calculated by PROC PROBIT. In particular, combining the asymptotic standard errors and the asymptotic correlation matrix obtained by PROC NLIN, we calculate the asymptotic variance covariance matrix.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.066928 - 0.000543 - 0.000618 \\ -0.000543 & 0.00000455 & 0.00000468 \\ -0.000618 & 0.00000468 & 0.00002797 \end{pmatrix}$$

This matrix looks nothing like the asymptotic variance covariance matrix that is calculated by SAS PROC PROBIT. The reason for this is as follows. We stated that X_i has mean $\mu_i(\theta) \equiv N_i p_i(\theta)$ and variance $\sigma_1^2(\theta) \equiv N_i p_i(\theta) (1-p_i(\theta))$. However the weighted least squares fit is carried out assuming that $\text{Var}(X_i) \equiv k\sigma_1^2(\theta)$. where k is a constant to be estimated from the data. Thus the estimates of the variances and covariances given by PROC NLIN assume $\hat{\text{Var}}(X_i) = \hat{k}\sigma_1^2(\hat{\theta})$. Thus all variances and covariances are multiplied by \hat{k} .

How is k estimated? Just as in the case of weighted linear regression, k is estimated by the residual mean square. Namely,

$$\hat{k}$$
 = weighted residual mean square = 0.11203710

Our maximum likelihood model, though, tells us that k=1. We thus need to adjust all variances and covariances to this value of k. To do this, we simply divide the above variance covariance matrix by \hat{k} . When this is done we obtain

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.5974 & -0.00485 & -0.00551 \\ -0.00485 & 0.0000405 & 0.0000418 \\ -0.00551 & 0.0000418 & 0.000250 \end{pmatrix}$$

This matrix is nearly the same as that calculated by PROC PROBIT.

An important purpose for fitting the probit model is to calculate lower confidence bounds on safe concentrations by use of Fieller's theorem (Finney [11], pp 78-79). That is, we wish to calculate a lower bound on the concentration such that $\Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 {\rm conc}) = L$, where L is some specified response rate. Such lower confidence bounds, at (one sided) confidence level 97.5 percent are a standard part of the PROC PROBIT output. They are given in Figure XIV.12 for the Holcombe and Phipps compound D data with untransformed concentration. We indicate below how to calculate these bounds for any confidence level, based on the output from PROC NLIN. The theory underlying these calculations is sketched in Appendix AXV.

The fitted model is $\hat{p}(conc) = \hat{c} + \hat{c}\phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 conc)$.

We wish to construct a 1 - α level confidence interval on that CONC such that

$$\Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{conc}_L) = L$$

where L is specified (e.g. 0.01, 0.05, 0.10 etc.). L represents the response level attributed to toxicant (i.e. over and above background).

The point estimate, $conc_{\underline{t}}$, is

$$\operatorname{conc}_{L} = (\Phi^{-1}(L) - \hat{\beta}_{0})/\hat{\beta}_{1} \equiv (f_{L} - \hat{\beta}_{0})/\hat{\beta}_{1}.$$

Let the asymptotic variance-covariance matrix of $(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1)$ be denoted as

$$\begin{pmatrix} g & h \\ h & j \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \widehat{Var}(\beta_0) & \widehat{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1) \\ \widehat{Cov}(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1) & \widehat{Var}(\hat{\beta}_1) \end{pmatrix}$$

A 1 - α confidence interval on conc is shown in Appendix AXV to be

$$\operatorname{conc}_{L} \varepsilon \frac{-B + \sqrt{B^2 - 4AC}}{2A}$$

where
$$A = \hat{\beta}_1^2 - jz_{\alpha/2}^2$$

$$B = 2[\hat{\beta}_1 (\hat{\beta}_0 - f_L) - hz_{\alpha/2}^2]$$

$$c = [(\hat{\beta}_0 - f_L)^2 - gz_{\alpha/2}^2]$$

 $z_{\alpha/2}$ is the upper $\alpha/2$ point of the standard normal distribution. The quantities $\hat{\beta}_0$, $\hat{\beta}_1$, g, h, j are obtained as output from NLIN. The results of the calculations are given below.

Holcombe and Phipps -- Compound D -- Untransformed Concentration

Results from calculation of upper and lower 95 percent

confidence bounds on various percentiles of PROBIT fit -- by Fieller's

Theorem

L	$f_L \equiv \Phi^{-1}(L)$	Lower 95% conf.limit	upper 95% conf.limit
0.01	-2.345	22.958	69.385
0.03	-1.88	39.00	78.23
0.05	-1.645	47.07	82.73
0.07	-1.48	52.73	85.91
0.10	-1.28	59.96	89.78
0.15	-1.03	68.06	94.66
0.20	-0.83	74.80	98.62
0.25	-0.68	79.82	101.63
0.50	0	101.69	116.15

These confidence bounds are seen to agree very closely with the bounds calculated by SAS PROC PROBIT and which appear in Figure XIV.12.

The previous dose response model fitted by use of PROC NLIN was a repeat of a model that has also been fitted by PROC PROBIT. Comparisons of the PROC PROBIT and PROC NLIN outputs verified that dose response models can in fact be fitted by nonlinear regression programs and helped to interpret the various features of the PROC NLIN output.

We now consider the fitting two dose response models that cannot be fitted by PROC PROBIT. This of course is the reason for considering the application of PROC NLIN for dose response estimation in the first place. We first consider the logistic model and then look at an alternative to Abbott's correction for accounting for background response.

The logistic model is a commonly used dose response model and gives results very similar to probit fits, at least between the 2nd and 98th percentiles. The logistic c.d.f. is

$$F(x) = \frac{e^x}{1 + e^x} \qquad -\infty < x < \infty$$

and is a symmetric unimodel distribution like the normal, but has heavier tails. We fit the dose response model

$$p(conc) = c + \overline{c}F(\beta_0 + \beta_1 conc)$$

in direct analogy to the probit fit that appears in Figures XIV.11.

The results of the Gauss-Newton interative process are given in Figure XV.6. The Marquardt algorithm converges whereas the Gauss-Newton algorithm does not because the Marquardt algorithm can take smaller steps and is more flexible in direction. However both algorithms arrive at nearly the same parameter estimates. The summary of the fitted dose response model appears in Figure XV.7. We can compare this fit to the probit fit in Figure XV.4.

We see that both the logit model and the probit model fit the data quite well (residual sums of squares are quite small). The background mortality rate is estimated to be about 0.07 by each model. The asymptotic variance-covariance matrix of the logit fit parameters is estimated to be

$$\widehat{\text{Var}} = \frac{1}{0.093958} \begin{pmatrix} 0.48086 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.00388 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.00518 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1.0000 & -0.988351 & -0.550366 \\ -0.988351 & 1.0000 & 0.520791 \\ -0.55036 & 0.520791 & 1.0000 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.48086 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.00388 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.00518 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2.46095 & -0.019626 & -0.01459 \\ -0.019626 & 0.000160 & 0.000111 \\ -0.01459 & 0.000111 & 0.000286 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\equiv \begin{pmatrix} g & h & * \\ h & j & * \\ * & * & * & * \end{pmatrix}$$

We now apply Fieller's procedure for calculating lower end upper confidence bounds on distribution percentiles of the dose response fit. We need only modify the calculations done for the probit fit by defining

$$f_L = F^{-1}(L) = \ln \frac{L}{1-L} \equiv logit (L)$$

and using the appropriate point estimates and variance-covariance matrix.

Holcombe and Phipps -- Compound D -- Untransformed Concentration

Results from calculations of upper and lower 95 percent

confidence bounds on various percentiles of LOGIT fit -- by Fieller's

Theorem

L	$f_L \equiv \ln \frac{L}{1-L}$	lower 95% conf.limit	upper 95% conf.limit	LOGIT point estimate	PROBIT Point estimate
0.01	-4.5951	2.515	66.209	45.31	52,931
0.03	-3.4761	26.859	78.151	61.205	64.231
0.05	-2.9444	38.390	83.863	68.757	69.942
0.07	-2.5867	46.127	87.726	73.838	73.952
0.10	-2.1972	54.526	91.957	79.370	78.812
0.15	-1.7346	64.454	97.031	85.940	84.887
0.20	-1.3863	71.879	100.900	90.888	89.747
0.25	-1.0986	77.967	104.142	94.974	93.392
0.50	0	100.441	117,293	110.578	109.916

The point estimates of the probit and logit fit percentiles are presented side by side for comparison. Except at L=0.01 they are very close and even at L=0.01 they are similar. The situation is a bit different with respect to confidence bounds on the safe concentration. The logit confidence bounds are to be compared with the probit confidence bounds. We see that the <u>upper logit and probit confidence bounds are very similar at each percentile.</u> However the <u>lower confidence bounds for the logit fit are somewhat lower than the lower confidence bounds for the probit fit at the low distribution percentiles.</u>

For L≥0.07, the lower confidence bounds for the logit and probit fits are rather similar, the lower logit bounds being constantly smaller than the lower probit bounds. For L below 0.05 this phenomenon is accentuated, especially at L = 0.01. This the region in which mortality due to background is the first order effect while toxicant related mortality is secondary. Thus the data and the fitted model reflect primarily the background effects and provide little direct evidence about toxicant related mortality. Since the tails of the logistic distribution are heavier and steeper than the tails of the normal distribution, changes in parameter values perturb percentile estimates in the normal distribution much less than they do in the logistic distribution. Thus

the lower logistic confidence limits become much wider than the corresponding lower normal limits as $L \rightarrow 0$. This phenomenon holds very strongly in this example at L = 0.01 and to some extent at L = 0.03, 0.05. In this region the data provide little basis to choose between the logit and probit fits. Both models fit the data well and yield very similar point estimates. Thus we learn the following lesson:

THE LOWER CONFIDENCE BOUNDS ON "SAFE" CONCENTRATIONS CORRESPONDING TO LOW PERCENTILES OF THE DOSE RESPONSE DISTRIBUTION MAY BE SENSITIVE TO THE PARTICULAR FORM ASSUMED FOR THE DOSE RESPONSE RELATION, EVEN THOUGH SEVERAL MODELS MAY FIT THE DATA EQUALLY WELL AND PROVIDE SIMILAR POINT ESTIMATES OF PERCENTILES. THE DATA MAY NOT BE SUFFICIENT TO DISTINGUISH BETWEEN THE MODELS.

This phenomenon is observed quite frequently in very low dose extrapolation based on results of carcinogenesis experiments. However in those applications the extrapolation is much more extreme than in fish toxicology applications. However this example illustrates that even in fish toxicology situations the inference about safe dose can be very sensitive to model assumptions, even at the first to the third percentile. The extent of background effects may prevent us from distinguishing among alternative models which fit the data about equally but which yield qualitatively different inferences about safe concentrations corresponding to low distribution percentiles.

To partially circumvent this problem we consider an alternative approach to dose response estimation based on fewer assumptions about the shape of the response distribution. See the following section for a discussion on this nonparametric approach to dose response estimation.

We consider now a third example of fitting dose response models by means of nonlinear regression. This example involves a nonstandard model which provides an alternative to Abbott's correction to account for background response. Abbott's correction is appropriate when the mechanism associated with background effects is <u>independent</u> of the mechanism associated with toxicant effects. For example toxicant mortality may be due to chemical effects whereas background mortality may be due to increased handling of the fish.

However Stephan [42] criticizes the assumption that the control mortality mechanism is totally independent of the toxicant mortality mechanism. He states that stressing the fish during the acclimation or testing periods may make them more susceptible to the toxicant. Thus background effects may act like additions to the toxicant concentrations. Stephan suggests not correcting for control mortality when assessing the effects of various toxicant concentrations.

An alternative way to reflect the dependence between background and toxicant mortality mechanisms is to fit a model which reflects the fact that background may function as an addition to the effective toxicant concentration. Assume that background effects are equivalent to an

addition of c μ g/liter in toxicant concentration. The quantity c is a model parameter to be estimated from the data. (Note that the usage of the notation c is completely different in this example than in the previous examples in this section. Here it is being used as a concentration whereas in previous examples the symbol c represented a probability.

Consider the following models based on an assumed normal dose response curve.

(1)
$$p(conc) = \Phi[\beta_0 + \beta_1(conc + c)]$$

(2)
$$p(conc) = \Phi[\beta_0 + \beta_1(log_{10}(conc + c) - 3.0)].$$

These models are to be fitted to the data by maximum likelihood estimation, based on binomial distribution theory. The parameters $\beta_0,\ \beta_1,$ c are to be estimated from the data. The first model is over parameterized, in that β_0 and c cannot be separated from one another. Thus to fit model (1) we fit

$$p(cone) = \Phi[(\beta_0 + \beta_1 e) + \beta_1 cone] \equiv \Phi(\alpha_0 + \beta_1 cone)$$

using PROC PROBIT with untransformed concentration and no "background" effect included.

The centering constant 3.0 in model (2) is intended to reduce the correlation between β_0 , β_1 thereby improving the covergence properties of the fitting algorithms. To fit model (2) we carry out a maximum likelihood analysis using PROC NLIN. The output from this analysis is shown in Figures XV.8, XV.9. The Marquardt algorithm again achieves convergence whereas the Gauss-Newton algorithm does not. Note however that the Gauss-Newton algorithm attains a smaller residual sum of squares due to the difference in weighting. (The distinction between attaining the smallest residual sum of squares and attaining a stationary point corresponds to the difference between minimum chi square estimation and maximum likelihood estimation. This distinction is discussed in Jennrich and Moore [43], page 10, and in the BMDP manual [27]. Both of these methods are asymptotically equivalent. The summary of the Marquardt algorithm fit is presented in Figure XV.9. The residual sum of squares represents a chi square test for goodness of fit of the model. We see that

residual chi square = 59.32 with 3d.f.

Thus the model does not seem to fit the data. We break down this residual chi square into individual cell components to determine whether

the large residual chi square represents consistent lack of fit or the contribution of a single aberrant cell.

We see that the expected frequencies, $N\hat{p}$, $N\hat{q}$, are quite large under the model fit and that there is a systematic discrepancy between model and data. Namely the model underestimates at the lower and upper ends and overestimates p in the middle.

We thus conclude that model (2) is not appropriate for this set of data. However this or similar models may be appropriate for other sets of data. The point is that the use of nonlinear regression techniques to fit dose response curves greatly expands the variety of models that we can fit to the data.

Since model (2) does <u>not</u> fit the data well we do not use it to calculate lower confidence bounds on "safe" dose. However these calculations can easily be made by use of asymptotic maximum likelihood theory.

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Figure XV.1 Holcombe and Phipps compound D mortality and concentration data -- pooled

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Figure XV.2 Output from SAS proc NLIN applied to Holcombe and Phipps data -- untransformed concentration

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Output from SAS PROC NLIN applied to Holcombe and Phipps data -- untransformed concentration Figure XV.3

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Output from SAS PROC NLIN applied to Holcombe and Phipps data -- untransformed concentration Figure XV 4.

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Figure XV.5 Logit fit to Holcombe and Phipps data using SAS PROC NLIN -- untransformed concentration

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Figure XV.6 Logit fit to Holcombe and Phipps data using SAS PROC NLIN -- untransformed concentration

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Figure XV.7 Logit fit to Holcombe and Phipps data using SAS PROC NLIN -- untransformed concentration

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Figure XV.8 Use of SAS PROC NLIN to fit nonstandard dose response model to data

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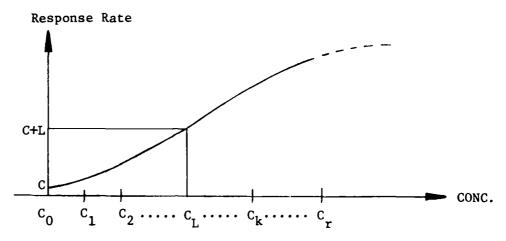
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Output from SAS PROC NLIN to fit nonstandard dose response model to data Figure XV.9

XVI. NONPARAMETRIC LOWER CONFIDENCE BOUNDS ON SAFE CONCENTRATIONS

In this section we again consider the estimation of "safe" concentrations based on fitted dose response curves. We wish to estimate a lower confidence bound on that concentration, \mathbf{c}_{L} , for which the response rate is no more than L greater than the control group rate. The value of L is specified by the user. We present this situation pictorially below.



The dose response curve is assumed to be concave upward at the lower percentiles. For a logit or probit fit this would be below the median of the distribution. The solid portion of the illustration represents the region where the dose response curve is concave upward.

The upper bound on the upward concavity region is denoted UCR. UCR is specified by the user.

Let $c_0 \le c_1 \le c_2 \le \ldots \le c_r \le UCR$ denote the test concentrations (treatment and control) in the upward concavity region. c_0 , the control group concentration, would often be 0.

The standard method of estimating c_L by means of dose response curves is to assume a specific form for the dose response curve such as probit or logit in concentration or in log concentration and then fit the model by means of maximum likelihood estimation, based on all the data. SAS PROC PROBIT or a nonlinear regression package can be used to fit such models.

The procedure discussed in this section has a number of important differences from these standard parametric dose response models. Among these are

1. Inferences about safe concentrations can sometimes be rather sensitive to the particular form of the dose response curve

- assumed. Yet it may not be possible to distinguish among such competing models based on the data at hand. The need for such strong parametric assumptions is alleviated with the procedure in this section.
- Once a functional form is chosen for the dose response curve, there is still the question of the dose metameter. Different lower bounds may result depending on whether the probit (say) model is chosen with respect to concentration, log (concentration), or some other function of concentration. There is no need to worry about the specific form of the dose metameter with the nonparametric procedure of this section.
- 3. The parametric dose response models assume a specific functional form for the correction for background responses; Abbott's formula (Finney, [11], pp125-126) is commonly used. However estimates of the low percentiles of the dose response curve can be sensitive to the specific form of background correction used. The procedure in this section does not require the specification of any particular functional form for background response.
- 4. The standard method of fitting a parametric dose response model is by means of maximum likelihood estimation. The theoretical justification is based on the assumptions of large samples and asymptotic normality. These assumptions may not be entirely satisfied in the case of relatively small sample sizes or of many response group probabilities at or near 0 percent or 100 percent. By contrast, the method discussed in this section is based on exact small sample theory and so is appropriate irrespective of small sample sizes or extreme response rates. We also present an alternative confidence bound calculation which may yield higher lower bounds, however this alternative approach depends on large sample theory and asymptotic normality. Both estimates are routinely calculated by our computer program.
- fits utilize the information from all the test concentrations, including those high concentrations at the upper end of the dose response curve, far away from the safe concentration. In fact, these upper concentrations, with high response rates are very instrumental in determination of the slope estimate and associated precision estimate. These high concentrations, thus carry considerable weight, through the specification of the model, in estimating response behavior at the low concentrations. This is not desirable, since the same functional form may not be appropriate throughout the entire range of concentrations. By contrast, the method in this section uses information only from those concentration groups where the dose response curve is concave upward. This is generally in the region below the median of the dose response curve.

One assumption made throughout this section is that the response results can be modelled with the binomial distribution within each tank and that there is no evidence of tank to tank heterogeneity within treatment groups. The responses can then be pooled across tanks within treatment groups and we can assume a single binomial distribution for the pooled responses within each treatment group. This distributional assumption is made in our program.

What do we do if there in fact is evidence of heterogeneity within tanks? There are three approaches to account for this situation. See Section IX for detailed discussion. Briefly these approaches are:

- Carry out analyses on a per tank basis rather than on a per fish basis. This is the approach that is currently being used by some researchers. However this approach greatly reduces the number of degrees of freedom available for analysis. I feel it is too conservative.
- 2. Fit distributional models to the data that explicitely account for such tank to tank heterogeneity. Several such models proposed are the beta binomial model (Williams [21]) or the correlated binomial model (Kupper and Haseman [22]). These models generalize the binomial distribution model and can be incorporated into a dose response curve estimation model. The fitting would be by maximum likelihood estimation and the statistical inferences would be based on asymptotic normal distribution theory.
- 3. We can adjust the data to reflect the within tank correlation. Namely tank to tank heterogeneity reflects itself as variation in response rate from tank to tank within treatment groups. This can also be regarded as correlation of responses within individual tanks. The effect of such correlation is to reduce precisions of estimates as compared to what they would be in a binomial model, since the correlations will usually be positive. This reduced precision can be accounted for in a workmanlike manner by reducing the effective sample size within each tank. Namely suppose we have 4 tanks per group, 25 fry per tank, and responses 1, 3, 8, 7 respectively. The effect of assuming a binomial model would be to pool data across tanks within groups, so that we have 100 fry and 19 responses. Thus $\hat{p} = .19$ and $\sqrt{Var(\hat{p})} =$ $\sqrt{(.19)(1-.19)/100} = .039$. However correlation within tanks inflates the variability by a factor h. (h>1). Reduce the assumed sample size within each tank from 25 to 25/h. Correspondingly reduce the effective number of responses within each tank to 1/h, 3/h, 8/h, 7/h, for a total of 19/h. Thus $\hat{p} = \frac{(19/h)}{(100/h)} = .19 \text{ still.}$ However $\sqrt{Var}(\hat{p})$ $\sqrt{(.19)(1-.19)/(100/h)} = .039\sqrt{h}$. We then disregard the

tank to tank heterogeneity and utilize the binomial based procedures, such as the computer program discussed in this section.

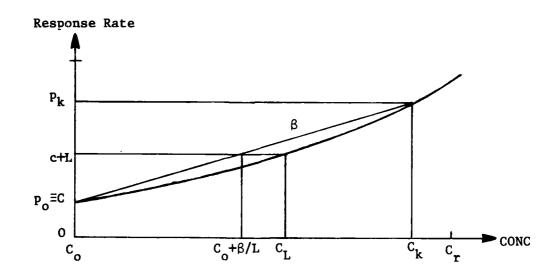
This method of adjustment to effective sample sizes is approximate and somewhat crude, however it has the advantage of simplicity and no special computer programs need be used. Namely, the same methods that are utilized in the absence of tank to tank heterogeneity are used in the presence of such heterogeneity, only with reduced sample sizes. This allows for the use of standard analysis tools in non-standard situations.

Looked at from the perspective of reducing sample sizes to an effective sample size, carrying out analyses on a per tank basis is like reducing the effective sample size in a tank all the way down to 1. I feel that this is going a bit too far.

In particular the methods discussed in this section can be utilized following such adjustments to account for tank to tank heterogeneity. Thus from now on in this section we ignore the question of tank to tank heterogeneity within groups and discuss our procedure, based on binomial distribution theory, as if there were no tank to tank heterogeneity.

We now consider the details of the nonparametric dose response procedure.

Assume that k is such that $c_0 \le c_L \le c_k \le \text{UCR}$. The value of k is specified by the user of the program.



Let p_0 , p_k denote the true response rates at c_0 , c_k respectively. Draw a chord joining the points (c_0, p_0) , (c_k, p_k) . Let β denote the slope of this chord. Thus

$$\beta = \frac{p_k - p_0}{c_k - c_0}$$

Upward concavity implies that the chord lies above the dose response curve throughout the region (c_0,c_k) . The concentration at which this chord crosses the value c+L on the response scale is c_0+L/β . If $c_0=0$, this concentration is L/β . Thus

$$c_o + L/\beta \le c_L$$

and so it we can place a lower confidence bound on c_0 + L/β , then this also serves as a nonparametric lower confidence bound on c_L .

Let \hat{p}_0 , \hat{p}_1 , ..., \hat{p}_r be the estimated response rates based on binomial theory at concentrations c, c_1 , ..., c_r respectively. Then $N_i\hat{p}_i \sim B(N_i,p_i)$ i = 0, 1, ..., r when N_i is the number of animals on test in the i-th treatment group pooled across tanks and p_i is the true response probability within the i-th treatment group.

Let p_0 denote a lower confidence bound on p_0 , p_k denote an upper confidence bound on p_k . Such exact lower and upper confidence bounds were derived by Clopper and Pearson [46] and are valid for small sample sizes. Expressions for them are contained in a number of sources, including Hollander and Wolfe [47], pages 23, 24. Charts for these confidence intervals are given in a number of places, including Dixon and Massey [13] pp 501-504. Expressions for these confidence bounds are given in Appendix AXVI.1.

An upper confidence bound, β_{11} , on β is

$$\beta_{U} = \frac{\hat{p}_{k} - \hat{p}_{o}}{c_{k} - c_{o}}$$

Thus a lower confidence bound on c_L is $c_O + L/\beta_U$. This confidence bound is valid in small samples.

The results in the concentration groups $c_{k+1}, c_{k+2}, \ldots, c_r$ can be used to improve on the confidence bound discussed above. The details of this procedure, along with a description of an alternative confidence bound, valid in large samples, are discussed in the writeup "A Computer Program to Calculate Nonparametric Lower Confidence Bounds on

Safe Concentrations in Quantal Response Toxicity Tests" by Feder and Sherrill [41]. This writeup also describes in detail the use of a computer program to implement this procedure. This document is included as an appendix to this section. We illustrate the results of this program by example in the remainder of this section and compare the results of the nonparametric estimates of safe concentration with those based on the logit or probit fits.

We first consider the DeFoe compound C fry mortality data.

We have seen from previous sections that there is no evidence of tank to tank heterogeneity within treatment groups.

The various portions of the computer program output are numbered and we discuss them in detail.

As a number of the parameter values used in the program were chosen rather arbitrarily (e.g. UCR) we should regard the output as illustrative of the algorithm's working rather than as a definitive answer in this particular case. We know that the algorithm will give conservative answers. The question is just how conservative the algorithm is.

We know from the preliminary plots and tests of homogeneity that there is no concentration related trend in embryo mortality. Such preliminary analyses are very important to carry out, in order to gain an understanding of the structure of the data. This helps us to interpret the results of the procedures such as the one in this section.

The numbered descriptions below refer to the similarly numbered descriptions in the computer printout for the DeFoe fry mortality data.

- 1. The title of the output. This title appears at the head of every page.
- The basic data are presented for each tank within each concentration group (treatment and control). Numbers of fry per tank, numbers survived, and toxicant concentration are given.
- 3. The number and the proportion of dead fry within each group are given. These values are calculated by pooling across tanks within groups.
- 4. Basic parameter values for the procedure.
 - L = response rate, over and above the control rate, at the "safe" concentration.

 $k \equiv$ the index of assumed upper bound on the "safe" concentration, c_T .

i.e.
$$c_0 \le c_L \le c_k$$
.

UCR = upper limit of the concave upward region in the dose response curve.

A number of confidence bound calculations are carried out for differing combinations of (L, k , UCR). In this example UCR is specified as 50. This places it just above the fifth treatment group. (\hat{p}_5 = .225 \hat{p}_6 = 1.000).

Thus r = 5 and $c_r = 48.3074$ in this problem.

L and k are varied.

$$L = .01, .05, .10$$

 $k = 3, 4, 5.$

L = .01, k = 3, UCR = 50.0 in the first calculation.

- 5. Simultaneous confidence interval adjustments are made in this run by means of Bonferroni's inequality with familywise confidence level 0.95. Thus all small sample confidence intervals are calculated at individual confidence level 1 (.05/4) = 0.9875.
- 6. Upper and lower confidence intervals are calculated at each concentration group. These are exact, small sample confidence intervals, calculated as discussed by Clopper and Pearson using the expressions in Appendix AXVI.1.
- 7. Straight line approximations to the dose response curve are calculated using the combinations of treatment groups shown. The specific method of calculation of the slopes is discussed in the program documentation in Appendix AXVI.2. (Feder and Sherrill [41]). For each combination of concentrations CONC MEAN is the arithmetic average of the concentrations, slope (normal approx) and slope (small sample) are the calculated values of $\beta_{\rm U}$ based on either asymptotic theory or exact small sample theory. See the program documentation for details.
- 8. Lower confidence bounds on c_L are calculated using the minimum of the slopes in paragraph 7 (in this case .0056 for the normal approximation and .0084 for the exact approach). The values given under "calculated safe dose" are $c_1 + L/\beta_U$. These are .0494 + .01/.0056 = 1.845 and .0494 + .01/.0084 = 1.24 respectively for the normal theory and small sample calculation.

Since we have taken k = 3, $c_k = c_3 = 5.9762$ is an upper bound on c_L , by assumption. Thus

$$\hat{c}_{L}(normal) = min(1.85, 5.98) = 1.85$$
 $\hat{c}_{L}(small sample) = min(1.24, 5.98) = 1.24$

Since the response rates are so extreme in 5 of the 6 groups (i.e. close to 0 or 1) we have small expected frequencies in many of the cells and asymptotic normal theory is suspect here. We will thus confine attention to calculations based on exact small sample theory for the remainder of the section.

- 9. We modify the parameters defining the procedure. The values k, UCR remain at 3, 50.0 respectively, however L is changed to 0.05. We thus define the "safe" concentration as that which yields a response rate of .05 above control.
- 10. Proceeding through the same calculations as before we find that the minimum slope (small sample) is .0084. Thus

$$c_1 + L/\beta_U = .0494 + .05/.0084 = 5.98$$

Since $c_k = c_3 = 5.9762$ we estimate
 $\hat{c}_L = \min (c + L/\beta_U, c_k) = \min(5.98, 5.98) = 5.98$

- 11. We now alter L to 0.10, leaving k and UCR as before.
- 12. $\hat{c}_L = \min(c_1 + L/\beta_U, c_k) = \min(.0494 + .10/.0084, 5.9762) = \min(11.954, 5.9762) = 5.9762.$

Thus $\hat{c}_{\underline{l}}$ is constrained by overly conservative assumption about $\boldsymbol{c}_{\underline{k}}.$

- 13. We now set k = 4 ($c_4 = 14.8125$) and set L back to 0.01
- 14. We now calculate slopes, but we have fewer to work with. Namely we use c_1 , c_4 , c_5 in various combinations.
- 15. $\hat{c}_L = \min(c_1 + L/\beta_U, c_k) = \min(.0494 + .01/.0082, 14.8125) = 1.2625$

- 16. We now change L to 0.05, leaving the other parameters as before.
- 17. $\hat{c}_L = \min(c_1 + L/\beta_U, c_k) = \min(.0494 + .05/.0082, 14.8125) = \min(6.1145, 14.8125) = 6.1145$
- 18. We change L to 0.10 leaving k, UCR unchanged.
- 19. $\hat{c}_L = \min(c_1 + L/\beta_U, 14.8125) = \min(.0494 + .10/.0082, 14.8125) = \min(12.1796, 14.8125) = 12.1796$
- 20. We now change k to 5 and set L back to 0.01. Thus $c_k \equiv c_5 = 48.3074$.
- 21. L = 0.01, k = 5 $\hat{c}_L = \min(c_1 + L/\beta_U, c_k) = \min(.0494 + .01/.0080, 48.3074) = 1.3045$
- 22. Change L to 0.05

23. L = 0.05.

- $\hat{c}_L = \min(c_1 + L/\beta_U, c_k) = \min(.0494 + .05/.0080, 48.3074) = 6.3246$
- 25. L = 0.10, k = 5 $\hat{c}_L = \min(c_1 + L/\beta_U, c_k) = \min(.0494 + .10/.0080, 48.3074) = 12.5998$

We thus conclude that k=3 is too conservative. Setting k=4 or 5 yields nearly the same lower bound on c_L . In particular for k=5

$$L = .01$$
 $\hat{c}_L = 1.3045$
 $L = .05$ $\hat{c}_L^L = 6.3246$
 $L = .10$ $\hat{c}_L^L = 12.5998$

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CALCULATION CONTROLLES
Charles State 19 ---Catedone per dest 2760-71 We now compare the lower confidence bounds on $c_{\underline{L}}$ obtained from the nonparametric dose response curve fits to these obtained by more classical probit fits in Section XIV.

Nonparametric	(k = 5, UCR = 50.0) Small Sample	Asymptotic
L = 0.01	$c_{L} = 1.3045$	1.496
L = 0.05	$c_{L} = 6.3246$	7.282
L = 0.10	$c_{\tau} = 12.5998$	14.515

We fitted a probit model to the data (untransformed concentration) using SAS PROC PROBIT. We corrected for background with Abbott's correction and obtained

	Point estimate	Lower 95% Conf.Bnd.
L = 0.01	3.7725	-157.377
L = 0.05	22.6065	- 84.3307
L = 0.10	32.6468	- 45.9667

The lower bounds based on the probit fit with background are thus useless. We refitted the model with the assumption of no background response. This is therefore a more restrictive model. Results:

	Point estimate	Lower 95% Conf.Bnd.
L = 0.01	1.6567	-17.6457
L = 0.05	21.1299	8.8997
L = 0.10	31.5110	21.2620

Thus at L = .05 and especially at L = 0.10 the nonparametric bounds are more conservative. However they are based on many fewer assumptions.

An attempt was made to fit the probit model to log concentration, as suggested by Finney. The probit program would not converge at all.

We now apply the nonparametric dose response program to the Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality data and compare the estimates of safe concentration with those based on probit and on logit fits. The logic underlying the procedure is indicated in Figure XVI.1

Refer to the computer printout (nonparametric). In this example the control group is at concentration 0 so we do not have to adjust for its affects. However we do have significant background effect.

We see from the listing of the data (① on computer printout following) and mortality rates by group that group 5 has an observed fry mortality rate of 0.79 while group 4 has an observed fry mortality rate

of 0.13. Confidence intervals on these values of p clearly confirm that group 4 is below the median of the dose response curve while group 5 is above the median. Therefore UCR lies somewhere between group 4 and group 5. We have taken it at concentration $100\mu g/liter$, about midway between the two groups. Thus $c_r = c_\Delta = 72.9499$.

If we define the "safe" values of L to be below 0.10 (over and above control) we should try $c_k = c_3 = 44.9049$ or $c_k = c_4 = 72.9499$ as upper bounds for c_L . We consider the results of the small sample calculations.

First trying k = 3:

$$\hat{c}_{L} = \min(L/\hat{\beta}_{U}, c_{k}) = \min(0.01/0.0027, 44.9049) = \frac{3.663}{3.663}$$

$$L = 0.05$$

$$\hat{c}_{L} = \min(1/\hat{\beta}_{U}, c_{k}) = \min(0.05/0.0027, 44.9049) = \frac{18.3315}{1.2000}$$

$$\hat{c}_{L} = \min(L/\hat{\beta}_{U}, c_{k}) = \min(0.10/.0027, 44.9049) = \frac{10.00027}{1.2000}$$

If we next try k=4, we have less of an adjustment for simultaneity and so we get slightly shorter intervals in this case. Namely

$$\begin{array}{lll} k = 4: \\ L = 0.01 & \hat{c}_L = 3.8453 \\ L = 0.05 & \hat{c}_L^L = 19.2264 \\ L = 0.10 & \hat{c}_L^L = 38.4529 \end{array}$$

Thus k = 3 and k = 4 yield essentially the same results for all practical purposes.

Let's now compare these results with those obtained by fitting probit and logit models to the data.

Probit models were fitted to the data vs CONC (untransformed) and \log_{10} (CONC). Both probit fits have nonsignificant residual chi square of about the same magnitude and so are judged to fit the data about equally well. The following 95 percent lower confidence bounds on safe concentration were obtained from these fits.

PROBIT FITS

<u>L</u>	UNTNSFMD CONC	LOG10 CONC
0.01	22.403	45.764
0.05	46.147	57.470
0.10	58.715	64.836

We see that the nonparametric fit is much more conservative than the probit fits since it is based on low dose linearity. Note that especially at the low percentiles the probit inference is quite sensitive to whether untransformed concentration or log concentration are used.

We also fitted a logistic dose response to the data using the SAS nonlinear regression program, PROC NLIN. Only untransformed concentrations were used with the logistic fit. Background response was adjusted for the Abbott's correction, just as we did with the probit fit. The following summarizes the results of the logistic fit and compare the inferences with those based on the probit fits.

Chi square for goodness of fit 0.282 with 3d.f.

Thus there is <u>no</u> evidence of lack of fit of the model to the data and the logit and probit models fit about equally well.

Point estimates of percentiles (after adjusting for background)

L	Probit(Untransformed CONC)	Probit(log CONC)	Logit(untransformed CONC)
0.01	53.385	60.974	45.31
0.05	69.946	71.826	68.757
0.10	78.774	78.380	79.370

Thus, except for L=0.01 where there is a bit of disparity among the models (although not of practical concern) the three models yield essentially the same percentile estimates.

We now consider lower confidence bounds on these same percentiles based on the three parametric fits and on the nonparametric fit.

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Output from special purpose program to calculate lower bounds on safe concentration based on nonparametric dose response curve fit

Lower confidence bounds*on percentiles (after adjusting for background)

L	Probit(Untransformed CONC)	Probit (log CONC)	Logit(Untransformed CONC)	Non- parametric
0.01 0.05	22.403 46.147	45.764 57.470	2.515 38.390	3.845 19.226
0.10	58.715	64.836	54.526	38.453

Comparing the lower confidence bounds on safe concentration we see the following relations.

- 1. The nonparametric procedure is more conservative than the parametric procedures, especially at the very low percentiles. This is because the nonparametric procedure is built on the assumption of linear approximations in the low concentration region, while the logit and probit fits approach their limiting values through exponential decay. Which estimate is more appropriate would need to be a matter of biological judgement. Since responses in the region of concentration for which L ≤ 0.05 are dominated by background response, the data themselves do not provide much empirical evidence.
- The results at L = 0.01 are surprisingly inconsistent across model fits. There is at least an order of magnitude difference in confidence bounds based on the logit and probit fits, despite the fact that the point estimates are in good agreement. There is even a factor of two difference between the bounds based on the two probit fits, despite good agreement of the point estimates. Thus the inferences at low percentiles are very sensitive to the model assumed. The nonparametric procedure, while conservative, is based on many fewer assumptions.

In this example the probit model fitted the data quite nicely and yielded more liberal confidence bounds on c, than did the nonparametric procedure. It is our experience that this is not always the case. In some situations the probit or logit model does not fit the data well. In other situations Fieller's method may yield lower confidence bounds on c, which are negative! We saw this in the case of the DeFoe data. In such cases the nonparametric procedure can provide more liberal

^{*}Confidence intervals for parametric fits are based on 95% two sided non-simultaneous procedures using Fieller's theorem. Nonparametric confidence intervals are based on simultaneous procedure with familywise confidence level of 95%.

bounds than the parametric procedures. We will see this in the following example.

We now place lower confidence bounds on the safe concentration for the Benoit compound A fry mortality data. We first consider the non-parametric procedure and then compare results with bounds based on the probit model. Figures XVI.2, XVI.3 contain plots of proportions of dead fry vs untransformed concentration and vs $\log_{10}(\text{concentration})$ respectively.

Based on the appearance of these plots, a probit dose response model does not seem to hold very well, especially with respect to untransformed concentration. Furthermore, there is some question about homogeneity of response rates within tanks at the highest concentration.

We first consider the nonparametric procedure. We see that the average concentration at the control group is 0.0809 and there was no observed fry mortality there. Based on the plots of proportion dead fry vs concentration and based on fry mortality proportions printed out by the program, we set UCR, the upper bound on the upward concavity region, to be somewhere above the 5th treatment group. In particular we set UCR = 15.0. Then $c_r \equiv c_5 = 13.3182$.

Note that for the purpose of illustration we are assuming that there is no tank to tank heterogeneity within groups. This assumption needs to be checked and appropriate modifications made, if necessary.

Because of the many sample proportions close to 0 the asymptotic normality assumption is questionable and so we use the small sample confidence bounds.

Based on the observed proportions of dead fry in the various groups, if L is less than or equal to 0.10 it makes sense to choose \mathbf{c}_k , the upper bound on safe concentrations to be \mathbf{c}_4 or \mathbf{c}_5 . For definiteness we choose \mathbf{c}_4 here. Thus we have

UCR = 15.0 k = 4
$$L = 0.01 \qquad \hat{c}_L = \min(c_1 + L/\hat{\beta}_U, c_k) = \min(0.0809 + 0.01/0.0423, 6.6020)$$

$$= \min(0.0809 + 0.2364, 6.6020) = \underline{0.3137}$$

$$L = 0.05 \qquad \hat{c}_L = \min(c_1 + L/\hat{\beta}_U, c_k) = \min(0.0809 + 1.1819, 6.6020)$$

$$= \underline{1.2628}$$

$$L = 0.10 \qquad \hat{c}_L = \min(c_1 + L/\hat{\beta}_U, c_k) = \min(0.0809 + 2.3638, 6.6020)$$

$$= 2.4447$$

We now compare these results with those based on the probit fit, using SAS PROC PROBIT.

First models including background variation were assumed. Namely

$$p(CONC) = c + \overline{c}\Phi((\beta_0 - 5) + \beta_1 CONC)$$

 $p(CONC) = c + \overline{c}\Phi((\beta_0 - 5) + \beta_1 \log_{10}(CONC)).$

The maximum likelihood fitting algorithm was unable to converge with either of these three parameter models!

Next the background rate was specified to be 0 and two parameter probit models were fitted to the data. The plot of proportion dead fry vs CONC suggests that the probit model does not fit the untransformed concentration and in fact the model converged to shows substantial lack of fit to the data. We therefore consider the probit fit in log concentration. This fit is better, but still exhibits marginal statistical evidence of lack of fit (Residual chi square = 8.00 with 4d.f., which is significant at α = 0.09). Based on this fit, the 95% lower confidence bounds on response distribution percentiles (using Fieller's theorem and adjusted by Finney's heterogeneity factor) are:

L 0.01
$$\hat{c}_L = 0.082$$

0.05 $\hat{c}_L = 0.523$
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Thus in this example these bounds are lower than those based on the non-parametric procedure. They are also based on a much more restrictive model.

The nonparametric procedure seems quite superior in this example.

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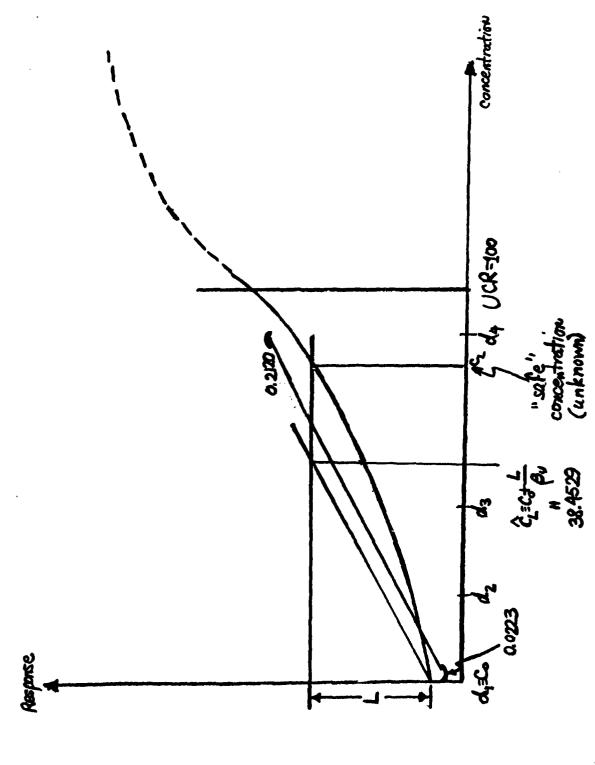
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Schematic description of nonparametric dose response estimation procedure -- Holcombe and Phipps Compound D fry mortality data Figure XVI.1

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Figure XVI.3

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XVII. ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE RESPONSES

Most of the preceeding discussion has been concerned with aspects of the analysis of quantal survival data. This includes preliminary graphical displays, tests for heterogeneity among tanks within groups, outlier detection procedures, adjustments for tank to tank heterogeneity, analysis of variance and multiple comparison procedures, and various types of dose response estimation procedures.

Quantitative responses such as length and weight are also recorded during and at the conclusion of toxicity tests. Weight measurements (in mgs) on all surviving fish at the conclusion of early life stage tests are standard. The statistical analysis of such responses is discussed in this section. This discussion is also directly relevant to the statistical analysis of the length and weight measurements that are taken at periodic intervals (e.g. at 30 day or 60 day intervals) in full life cycle tests.

The approach to analyzing weight and length data is directly analagous to the approach to analyzing survival data. Each aspect of analyzing quantal data, mentioned above, has a direct counterpart for analyzing quantitative data. In fact the procedures appropriate for analyzing quantitative responses are more "standard" and more familiar to most users of statistical methodology than those appropriate for analyzing quantal responses.

In addition to weight and length data a quantitative response often recorded and analyzed in mammalian toxicology tests is time to death (or time to tumor or time to any apriori specified event). Such time to death data provide more information than the 30 day, 60 day, 120 day, etc., survival rates that are commonly reported in aquatic toxicity tests. In particular knowledge of time to death of each embryo or fry yields the percent survival responses as a byproduct. However 30 day survival data will not reveal whether the fish that died did so on day 1, day 15, or day 29. Such information is important for understanding the mechanisms by which the toxicants act.

The analysis of time to death data involves working with censored responses. Parametric and nonparametric approaches to the analysis of such data are discussed in a number of books such as Gross and Clark [49] and Kalbfleisch and Prentice [50].

Time to death (to the nearest day) data is usually collected as part of the day to day test procedure since the tanks are examined daily (or at least on weekdays) for dead fish and these are removed and recorded. Unfortunately, time to death data is not routinely reported as part of the experimental results. In particular time to death of individual fish was not included in any of the data sets made available to us. As such, the analysis of censored life data is not discussed here.

We would make a strong recommendation that time to death of individual fish be routinely reported in the future instead of or in addition to 30 day, 60 day, etc., percent survival data. This would require little additional cost or effort but could possibly provide valuable additional information.

In the remainder of the section we consider the various aspects of analyzing the weights recorded on survivors of 30 day early life stage tests. Before getting down to the technical and methodological issues, several conceptual points should be discussed. The primary difficulty in the interpretation of weight data is the confounding of weight gain with survival. A number of scenarios can be postulated leading to different conclusions about the relationships to be anticipated. Death can be thought of as the first order effect of the toxicant and weight loss (or lesser weight gain) as a secondary effect. If death and weight loss represent different degrees of severity of the same mechanism then one would expect that average weights of survivors would decrease as the mortality rate increases and lack of observation of such a decrease might be interpreted as lack of effect. However, since weights are measured just on survivors a selection phenomenon may be occurring. Presumably, in the various treatment groups the stronger fish survive while the weaker fish die. Presumably the weaker fish would have gained less weight on average than the stronger fish, had they survived (e.g., if they were in the control group). Since greater numbers of weak fish survive in the control and low treatment level groups than in the higher treatment level groups, these weak survivors might decrease the average weight gain relative to the strong survivors in the treatment groups. Thus an increase in observed average weight with treatment level might be possible, or if the toxicant reduces weight gain in the treatment groups, the selection and reduction effects may offset one another, therby resulting in no observable trend. Therefore the biological meaning of observed trends in weight gain with increasing concentration or the lack of observed trends depends very much on the biological assumptions about toxicant mechanisms and about association between survival and weight loss.

One way to reduce or eliminate the confounding of the survival and weight gain responses is to confine weight gain comparisons to those concentration groups whose mortality rates are not significantly (either biologically or statistically) greater than that in the control groups. The rationale for this viewpoint is that mortality is a first order effect while weight gain is a second order effect. Thus in groups with significant mortality, the question of reduction in weight gain is not of concern. Only when the mortality rate approximates that in the control group is the comparison of weight gains important.

We illustrate the analysis of the weight responses with fry data from the Holcombe and Phipps test on compound D. Recall that the observed mortality rates in the control group and the five treatment groups were 0.06, 0.08, 0.08, 0.13, 0.79, 1.00. It was shown in Section XII that the mortality rates in groups 5 and 6 differ significantly from that in the

control group and group 4 is borderline (statistically) significant according to Williams' procedure. Thus it might be reasonable to confine weight gain comparisons with the control group to treatment groups 2, 3, and possibly 4.

A. Preliminary Scatterplots

A number of plots were prepared showing the means and standard deviations of weight by tank plotted against group number, concentration, log concentration, proportion of survivors, and other variables. Several of these plots are shown in Figures XVII.1 to XVII.4. Figure XVII.1 shows average weight per tank vs group number. Group 6 does not appear in this plot since it had 100 percent mortality. A downward trend in average weight with increasing group number is evident. Note that the total range of variation in average weights is not very great -- between 100 mg and 145 mg. Figure XVII.2 shows standard deviation of weight per tank vs group number. With the exception of one tank in group 5 there appears to be no trend in standard deviation with group. Note that the scandard deviation estimates in group 5 are less stable than those in the other groups since they are based on many fewer observations. Figures XVII.3, XVII.4 show the average weight per tank vs concentration and vs log concentration respectively (more specifically log(1 + CONC)). decreasing trend in average weight with increasing concentration is again evident. In Figure XVII.4 a linear or quadratic trend in log concentration can be seen among the treatment groups.

B. Outlier Detection Procedures and Testing for Tank to Tank Heterogeneity Within Groups

Analysis of variance models were fitted to the individual weights and logarithmic weights to determine if there is any statistical evidence of tank to tank heterogeneity within groups or of differences in average weights across groups. The two way mixed model

$$W_{ijk} = \mu + \alpha_{i} + \tau_{j(i)} + \epsilon_{ijk}$$

$$i = 1, \dots, I \quad j = 1, \dots, J$$

$$k = 1, \dots, n_{ij}$$

was specified where W_{ijk} corresponds to the weight or to the log weight of the k-th fish within the j-th tank of the i-th group, α_i is the fixed group effect, $\tau_{j(i)}$ is the random effect of the j-th tank within the i-th group, and ε_{ijk} is the experimental variation. It is assumed that $\tau_{j(i)}$ are independent $N(0, \sigma_{\tau}^2)$ and ε_{ijk} are independent $N(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2)$ and the $\{\tau_{j(i)}\}$, $\{\varepsilon_{ijk}\}$ are independent. In the case of the Holcombe and Phipps Compound D fry mortality data I = 5, J = 4, n_{ij} varies with tank and with tank and with group but is nearly constant in groups 1 to 4. The model was fitted to the data using PROC GLM in the SAS statistical computing system [12]. The results are shown in Figures XVII.5 to XVII.7.

Figures XVII.5 and XVII.6 show the analysis of variance tables for the responses weight and log weight respectively. Figure XVII.7 shows the expected mean squares of the entries in the analysis of variance tables in Figures XVII.5 and XVII.6. The conclusions from the fits to the untransformed weights and to the logarithmic weights are very similar. From the expected mean square of TANK (GRP) indicated in Figure XVII.7 it is seen that the hypothesis $H_0\colon\sigma_T^2=0$ is tested by comparing the TANK (GRP) mean square with the error mean square. The resulting F tests are nonsignificant for both the untransformed and logarithmic weight responses (observed significance levels 0.64, 0.70 respectively). The estimated variance components are:

untransformed weights

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\tau}^2 = \left(\frac{11324.61}{15} - 900.35\right)/19.19 = -7.58$$

logarithmic weights

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\tau}^2 = \left(\frac{1.136}{15} - 0.097\right)/19.19 = -0.001$$

Thus in both cases $\hat{\sigma}_{\tau}^2$ is set equal to zero. Therefore in this example the error mean square may be used as an error yardstick against which to compare the fixed effect mean squares for group effects.

In general σ_{τ}^2 will not be equal to zero and so an appropriate error yardstick will be a linear combination of the error mean square and the tank (group) mean square. To see how this works consider the test of the hypothesis $H_0:\alpha_1=0$, that is no group effects. This null hypothesis is obviously false and the test given by PROC GLM, based on the error mean square with 366 d.f. rejects H_0 very strongly. However the error mean square underestimates the variability of the group mean square if σ_{τ}^2 is is greater than zero. The type IV expected mean square for group is shown in Figure XVII.7 to be $\sigma_{\epsilon}^2+18.2048\sigma_{\tau}^2$. Thus the tank (group) mean square with 15 d.f. is a more appropriate error yardstick than the error mean square estimates σ_{ϵ}^2 . In general a linear combination of these two mean squares would be an even better yardstick.

The classical approach to combining expected mean squares is based on choosing that linear combination which yields an unbiased estimator of σ_{e}^{2} + 18.2048 σ_{τ}^{2} . Namely

$$\mathbf{w}[\sigma_{\mathbf{e}}^2 + 19.1915\sigma_{\tau}^2] + (1 - \mathbf{w})\sigma_{\mathbf{e}}^2 = \sigma_{\mathbf{e}}^2 + 18.2048\sigma_{\tau}^2$$

Thus

$$w = \frac{18.2048}{19.1915} = 0.95$$

Note that w does not depend on σ_{τ}^2 .

If the design had been completely balanced, this would have led to using the tank (group) mean square with 15d.f. irrespective of the value of σ_T^2 Such an approach is analagous to carrying out analyses on a per tank basis rather than on a per fish basis.

For the untransformed weights

.95 MS TANK (GRP) + .05 MS ERROR =
$$.95(754.97) + .05(900.35) = 762.26$$

For the logarithmic weights

.95 MS TANK (GRP) + .05 MS ERROR =
$$.95(0.0757) + .05(.0972) = 0.0768$$

To calculate the effective number of degrees of freedom of this linear combination, assume that

.95 MS TANK (GRP) + .05 MS ERROR
$$\sim (\sigma_{\rm e}^2 + 18.2048\sigma_{\rm T}^2)\chi_{\rm V}^2/{\rm V}$$

where ν is unknown. Equating the variances of the two sides we obtain:

$$(.95)^{2}(\sigma_{e}^{2} + 19.1915\sigma_{\tau}^{2})^{2}\frac{2}{15} + (.05)^{2}\sigma_{e}^{2}\frac{2}{366} = (\sigma_{e}^{2} + 18.2048\sigma_{\tau}^{2})^{2}\frac{2}{v}$$

Approximating the expectations by the mean squares yields

(a)untransformed weights

$$(.95)^2 (754.97)^2 \frac{1}{15} + (.05)^2 (900.35)^2 \frac{1}{366} = (762.26)^2 \frac{1}{v}$$

or v = 16.9

(b)logarithmic weights

$$(.95)^2(.0757)^2 \frac{1}{15} + (.05)^2(.0972)^2 \frac{1}{366} = (.0768)^2 \frac{1}{v}$$

or v = 17.1

Comparison of the type IV group mean square with this error yardstick yields

untransformed weights: 7649.96/762.26 = 10.04

logarithmic weights: 0.6743/0.0768 = 8.78

Although in the case of unbalanced data the numerator and denominator mean squares are not strictly independent and the denominator "mean square" is not strictly distributed as chi square, an approximate test is usually constructed by treating these ratios as F ratios with degrees of freedom 4 and 17. These ratios are of course very highly statistically significant according to this yardstick. Thus there is very strong statistical evidence of differences in average weights among groups.

It should be noted that this approach of using essentially the tank (group) mean square with 15d.f. as error yardstick is very close to carrying out group to group comparisons on a per tank basis rather than on a per fish basis. Figures XVII.8 shows the output from a one way analysis of variance to compare group means using the tank means as basic input data. This corresponds to a quantification of the relations seen in Figure XVII.1. Again the group effects are highly significant. The expected mean square for tank (group) as shown in Figure XVII.7 is as if each tank contained 19.19 fish on average. (The average is actually 19.3). If we divide MS TANK (GRP) by 19.19 we obtain 39.34 which agrees quite well with the error mean square of 39.40 in Figure XVII.8.

An alternative approach to pooling mean squares in the analysis of variance is based on finding that linear combination of tank (group) and error mean squares which minimizes the mean square difference from σ^2 + $18.2048\sigma_\tau^2$. Namely choose w so that

E[w MS TANK (GRP) + (1 - w)MS ERROR -
$$(\sigma_e^2 + 18.2048\sigma_{\tau}^2)]^2$$

is minimized. The resulting choice of w will depend on the relative magnitudes of σ_e^2 and σ_τ^2 . As σ_τ^2/σ_e^2 approaches zero, more and more emphasis will be placed on the error mean square because its reduced variance will more than compensate for its bias. The above expectation can be calculated to be

$$w^{2}(\sigma_{e}^{2} + 19.19\sigma_{\tau}^{2})^{2}\frac{2}{15} + (1 - w)^{2}\sigma_{e}^{4}\frac{2}{366} + [(19.19w - 18.2048)\sigma_{\tau}^{2}]^{2}$$

We wish to choose $w(0 \le w \le 1)$ to minimize this expression. If we substitute in the estimates of the mean squares and of the variance components we obtain

$$w^{2}(754.97)\frac{2}{15} + (1 - w)^{2}(900.35)^{2}\frac{2}{366} + 0 = 75997.3w^{2} + 4429.7(1 - w)^{2}$$

which has its minimum in the interval $0 \le w \le 1$ at w = 0.055. Thus the second approach leads to the error yardstick

.055 MS TANK (GRP) + .945 MS ERROR = 892.35

with approximate degrees of freedom obtained by solving the equation

$$(.055)^2 (754.97)^2 \frac{1}{15} + (.945)^2 (900.35)^2 \frac{1}{366} = (892.35)^2 \frac{1}{v}$$

or v = 380.

Thus this allocation effectively leads to the use of the error mean square in this case and is very different from that obtained by equating expected mean squares. This alternative pooling scheme is most useful when there are an inadequate number of degrees of freedom for estimating MS TANK (GRP) because it then puts more weight on the error mean square. The criterion used does not of course, insure that the resulting mean square is an unbiased estimate of $\sigma^2 + 18.2048\sigma^2$.

It should be noted that the GLM procedure permits the decomposition of the model sum of squares into individual degree of freedom components. This feature is illustrated in Figure XVII.8. The linear and quadratic components of trend are defined by the contrasts (-2, -1, 0, 1, 2) and (2, -1, -2, -1, 2) respectively. These contrasts single out physically important comparisons among the groups to test and estimate and thereby increase the sensitivity of the analysis of variance tests. This approach is analagous to carrying out a one sided measure of association test with qualitative survival data.

The residuals from the analysis of variance fits can be used to check distributional assumptions and to detect outliers. Figures XVII.9 - XVII.12 display the arithmetic and logarithmic residuals from the fits in Figures XVII.5 and XVII.6 respectively. Figures XVII.9 and XVII.10 show the residuals plotted vs group. No outliers are obvious. The variability seems constant with group. The residuals from the untransformed weights appear to be much more symmetric about zero than those from the logarithmic weights. Figures XVII.11 and XVII.12 show normal probability plots of the arithmetic and logarithmic residuals respectively. The plot in Figure XVII.11 looks much more nearly normal than that in Figure XVII.12.

The lowest two residuals in Figure XVII.11 lie below the line through the remainder of the data. To determine whether there is any statistical evidence that these observations are outliers we can test whether the most extreme of 386 independent normally distributed random variables with mean 0 and standard deviation 30 is likely to exceed 118 in absolute value. (The two extreme residuals correspond to observations 209 and 220, are from group 3, tanks A and B, have values -112.9 and -117.9, and are associated with fish having reported weights of 15 mgs and 10 mgs. I am assuming that these are the correct weights, but this should be checked).

P[most extreme of 386 observations greater than 118 in absolute value] =

$$1 - [P(-118 < X < 118)]^{386} = 1 - [2\Phi(\frac{118}{30}) - 1]^{386} = 1 - (.999950)^{386}$$
$$= 1 - .98 = .02$$

Thus there is statistical evidence that this extreme residual does not conform to the others. Whether this represents a clerical error or natural biological variation would need to be determined.

Assuming that the extreme observation is an outlier, the second most extreme observation can be compared to the extreme of 385 observations.

 $P[most\ extreme\ of\ 385\ obsvns\ greater\ than\ 113\ in\ absolute\ value]$ =

$$1 - [P(-113 < X < 113)]^{385} = 1 - [2\Phi(\frac{113}{30}) - 1]^{385} = 1 - (.99990)^{385}$$
$$= 0.037$$

There is thus statistical evidence that this second most extreme observation is also an outlier.

Basic records should be examined to determine if these observations are valid. If not, they should be corrected or deleted and the modified data reanalyzed. If they in fact represent natural biological variation then biological judgement should be used to determine whether or not to retain these observations with the remainder.

C. <u>Multiple Comparison Procedures and Regression Analyses</u>

Based on the results of the analysis of variance calculations previously discussed, we can carry out comparisons of average weight gains across groups. The average weight gains and numbers of animals per group are:

Group	1	2	3	4	5
N	94	92	92	87	21
Average	131.2	135.59	127.9	113.1	108.1

The standard errors of these averages based on averaging the responses from four tanks and varying numbers of fish per group, are $1/4(\sigma_{\tau}^2+\sigma_{e}^2/23.5),\ 1/4(\sigma_{\tau}^2+\sigma_{e}^2/23),1/4(\sigma_{\tau}^2+\sigma_{e}^2/23),\ 1/4(\sigma_{\tau}^2+\sigma_{e}^2/21.75),\ 1/4(\sigma_{\tau}^2+\sigma_{e}^2/5.25).$ The variance components $\sigma_{\tau}^2,\ \sigma_{e}^2$ can be estimated by appropriate linear combinations of the tank (group) and error mean squares displayed in Figure XVII.5. For the Holcombe and Phipps fry mortality data $\hat{\sigma}_{\tau}^2=0$ and so we can estimate the standard errors using the error mean square.

Thus

$$\hat{\sigma}_{e}^{2} = 900.355$$
 with 366 d.f.

Alternative standard error estimates with appropriate degrees of freedom can be constructed using approaches analagous to those discussed in the previous subsection.

We apply Williams' procedure [36] to determine which groups have (statistically) significantly lower weight gain than the control group. We first need to adjust these mean values so that they are in monotone decreasing sequence. We simply calculate weighted average ($94 \times 131.2 + 92 \times 135.59$)/186 = 133.37 of the averages in groups 1 and 2. The modified averages are now in monotone decreasing order. We declare the group i average weight gain to be significantly smaller than the control average if

$$\bar{X}_{i,adj} - \bar{X}_{1} < -\bar{t}\hat{\sigma}_{e}(1/N_{i} + 1/N_{1})^{1/2}$$

Note that $\overline{X}_{i,adj}$ is the adjusted average whereas \overline{X}_{1} is the unadjusted average. We use the factor \overline{t} obtained from Williams' table, which is derived under the assumption of equal group sample sizes. This assumption is quite reasonable for groups 1-4. We assume that $\hat{\sigma}_{e}^{2}$ is estimated with 366 d.f. A more conservative assumption might be use 15 d.f. since this is the amount of information concerning σ_{τ}^{2} . This would raise \overline{t} from 1.75 to 1.88.

The group i mean is declared to be significantly lower than the control mean if

$$\bar{x}_{i,adj} < \bar{x}_{1} - \bar{t}\hat{\sigma}_{e}(1/N_{i} + 1/N_{1})^{1/2} = 131.2 - (1./50)(30.01)(1/N_{i} + 1/N_{1})^{1/2}$$

$$i = 2$$
: $\bar{X}_{2,adj} = 133.37$ critical value = 123.50
 $i = 3$: $\bar{X}_{3,adj} = 127.9$ critical value = 123.50
 $i = 4$: $\bar{X}_{4,adj} = 113.1$ critical value = 123.39
 $i = 5$: $\bar{X}_{5,adj} = 108.1$ critical value = 118.52

Thus the average weight gains in groups 4 and 5 are declared by Williams' procedure to be (statistically) significantly lower than the control group average at the 5 percent level. With respect to mortality, group 5 is obviously much different than the control group and group 4 is borderline (statistically) significantly different. Thus the quantal survival and quantitative weight responses yield essentially the same conclusions.

We can fit regression models to the weight gain data to quantify the trends in averages across groups. Figure XVII.4 shows average weight gain plotted against log(1 + CONC). The responses in the four treatment groups show a definite trend, mostly linear but possibly with some second order curvature. Figure XVII.13 shows the results of fitting a cubic

polynomial in log (1 + CONC) to the treatment groups and an indicator function to the control group. Namely the model

$$W_{ijk} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 ICTL + \beta_2 LCONC + \beta_3 LCONC^2 + \beta_4 LCONC^3 + \epsilon_{ijk}$$

was fitted to the weight data where ICTL = 1 if GRP = 1 and 0 otherwise and LCONC = $\log(1 + \text{CONC})$. This model fits a cubic polynomial to the treatment groups. The parameter β_1 , represents the difference between the control group mean and the extrapolation back to LCONC = 0 along the cubic polynomial. The contrasts estimated at the bottom of the figure correspond to the differences between the mean responses at the treatment groups, based on the polynomial fit, and the control group response.

A complication in inference procedures arises if there is tank to tank heterogeneity within groups. Observations within the same tank are then dependent due to a common tank effect. The variation of the type IV mean square for GRPS is seen in Figure XVII.7 to be inflated from σ_e^2 to $\sigma_e^2+18.2048\sigma_{\tau}^2$ due to such heterogeneity. The standard errors in Figure XVII.13 might then be inflated by the factor $[1+18.2048\sigma_{\tau}^2/\sigma_e^2]^{1/2}$ to account for such heterogeneity. The quantity $\sigma_e^2+18.2048\sigma_{\tau}^2/\sigma_e^2]^{1/2}$ to account for such heterogeneity. The quantity $\sigma_e^2+18.2048\sigma_{\tau}^2/\sigma_e^2]^{1/2}$ to account for such heterogeneity. The quantity of the standard errors in Figure XVII.5 in at least one of two different ways, as discussed in the previous subsection. These yields estimates of 726.26 with 17 d.f. or 892.35 with 380 d.f. Alternatively, regression fits can be carried out on a per tank basis, as is commonly done. This turns out to be very similar to using the 17d.f. variance estimate.

Since σ_T^2 was nonsignificant in the previous ANOVA fit, since $\hat{\sigma}_T^2=0$, and since the variance estimate with 380 d.f. is very similar to the error mean square in Figure XVII.13, we will use the error mean square as the basis of standard error calculations in this example. It should be noted however that this is appropriate only if $\sigma_T^2=0$.

We see from the type I sums of squares in Figure XVII.13 that the linear component of trend is highly significant while the quadratic and cubic trends are nonsignificant over and above the linear trend. This agrees with the appearance of Figure XVII.4. The quadratic and cubic terms should be deleted and the model refitted. The contrasts at the bottom of Figure XVII.13 show, in agreement with the results from Williams' procedure, that groups 4 and 5 differ significantly from the control group while groups 2 and 3 do not.

TEST ON COMPOUND D CALTY TO LIFT METERS CARACON STRUCTURES OF MOLECONNE AND PELPES

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Figure XVII.1 Average weight per tank vs group

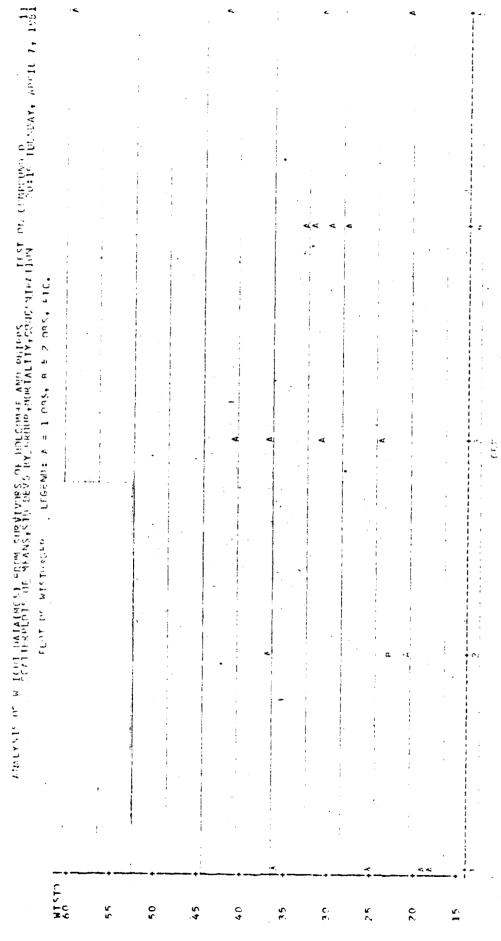


Figure XVII.2 Standard deviation of weight per tank vs group

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Figure XVII.3 Average weight per tank vs concentration

AMALYTIS OF WELCOT EXECUSED FROM SHYVIVERS OF HELCHMASS AND PHIEPS TENT OF COMPOUND D. SCALLESEDDS DE MENNASSID DEVS BY DEVS BY DEVS BY BRILLY*CONCENTRALION ZGILS TUESDAY, APRIL 7, 1961

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Figure XVII.4 Average weight per tank vs log concentration

	ANALYSIS DI	ANALYSIS OF WEICHT DATA(MGS) FROM SURVIVORS OF HOLCOMBE AND PHIPPS Anoya on Oricinal Observations to Detect qutliers General Linear models procedure	ROM SURVIVORS OF HOLCOMBE AND PLURICINAL DESERVATIONS TO DETECT GENERAL LINEAR MODELS PROCEDURE	HOLCOMBE A	ND PHIPPS TECT QUILIERS DURE	1	TEST ON CUMPOUND D 13:38 MONDAY, APRIL 13: 1981	13, 1981
DEPENDENT VARIABLE: WGHT	MGHT .					· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
SOURCE	0F	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	UARE	F VALUE	PR > F	R-SLUARE	C.V.
MODEL	19	43953.20526379	2313,32659283	9283	2.57	50000	V.11.1665	23.7568
ERRUR	366	329529.78955487	900.35461627	1627		STG DEV	*	WCHT MEAN
CORRECTED TOTAL	385	373482.99481865				30,005,005,005	126	126-13471503
SOURCE	DF	TYPE I SS	F VALUE	PR > F	5	TYPE IV SS	TYPE IV SS F VALUE	곳 ~
GR P TANK (GRP)	15	32628-60443368 11324-40083011	90.6 0.84	0.0001	. 51	30599.85439173	H.50 0.84	0.0001

Analysis of variance fit of individual weights on group and tank within group. Holcombe and Phipps Compound D fry mortality data Figure XVII.5

	ANALYSIS OF W	ANALYSIS OF WEIGHT DATA(MGS) FROM SURVIVORS OF HOLCOMBE AND PHIPPS ANGVA ON ORIGINAL OBSERVATIONS TO DETECT OUTLIERS CENTER 1 THERE HOLLS OF SOCIETY	OM SURVIVORS O	ATTONS TO DI	AND PHIPPS ETECT OUTLIERS	TEST ON COMPOUND D 22	UND D 28 MONDAY: APR	25 11 14: 1931
DEPENDENT VARIABLE: LWGHT	: LWGHT		SCHENAL LINEAN HOUSES PROCEDURE	שחחבר א געתרי	EDUKE	The second secon		
SOURCE	90	SUM OF SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	OUARE	F VALUE	PR > F	R-SQUARE	C. V.
MODEL	91	4.02T0092T	0.21194786	98786	2.18	0.0032	717101.0	9765
ERKUR .	366	35.56349376	160.0	0.09716802		STD DEV		LWGHT MEAN
CORRECTED TOTAL	385	£0£05065*6£	:		5	0.31171782		4.79666 349
SOURCE	90	TYPE 1 SS	F VALUE	P. > F.	DF	TYPE IV SS	F VALUE	7. × +
GRP TANKIGEP)	15	2.89106672	0.78	0.0001	15	2.69707731	96.9	0.0001
_								

Figure XVII.6 Analysis of variance fit of individual logarithmic weights on group and tank within group. Holcombe and Phipps Compound D fry mortality data

	ANALYSIS UF MEICH! DAIA(MCS) FRUM SURVIVURS OF HOLCOMBE AND PHIPPS ANDVA ON ORIGINAL OBSERVATIONS TO DETECT OUTLIERS	TEST ON COMPOUND D	20 APR 11, 13, 1981
	GENERAL LINEAR MODELS PROCEDURE		
DEPENDENT VARIA	DEPENDENT VARIABLES: WGHT LINGHT	-	•
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20005			
GR 19	VAR(ERROR) + 19.0254986 VAR(TANK(GRP)) + Q(GRP)	and the state of t	
TANKIGRP)	VARIERRUR) + 19.1914733 VARITANK (GRP))		·.
SOURCE	TYPE IV EXPECTED MEAN SQUARE		
GRP	YARIERRORI + 18,2048497 VARITANKIGRPII + QIGRPI		
TANK (GRP)	VAR(ERKCH) + 19.1914733 VAR(TANK (GRP.))		

Expected mean squares in analysis of varinace fits to Holcombe and Phipps fry mortality data Figure XVII.7

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MODEL	*	2465	2465.21503461	616,30375865	5865	15.64	10000	0.600000	1.1030
ERKUK	. 15	065	59u.95730026	39-39715335	5335		STO DEV		KIMI. MIAN
CORRECTED TOTAL	19	3050	3056.17233487				- 6.27¢71517	•	123400165160
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Analysis of variance fit of average weights per tank on group. Holcombe and Phipps Compound D fry mortality data Figure XVII.8

Figure XVII.9 Residuals vs group

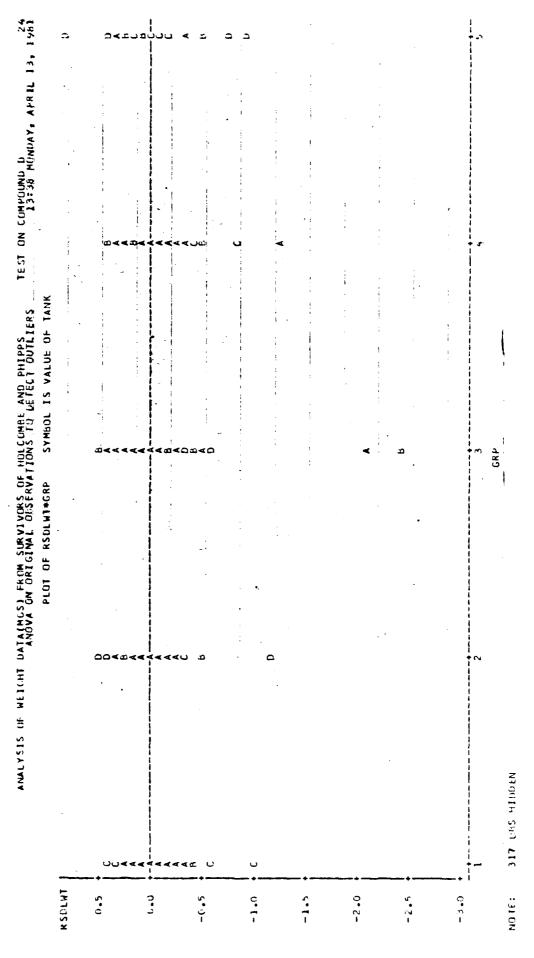


Figure XVII.10 Logarithmic residuals vs group

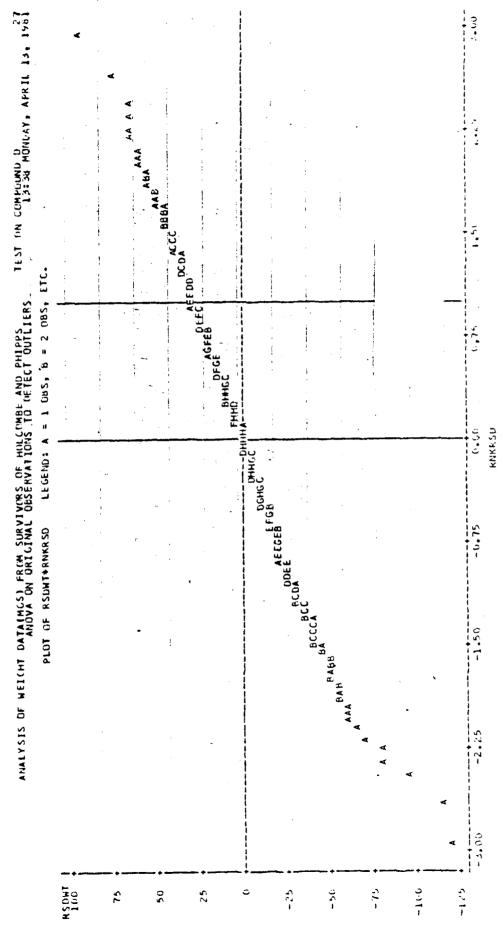
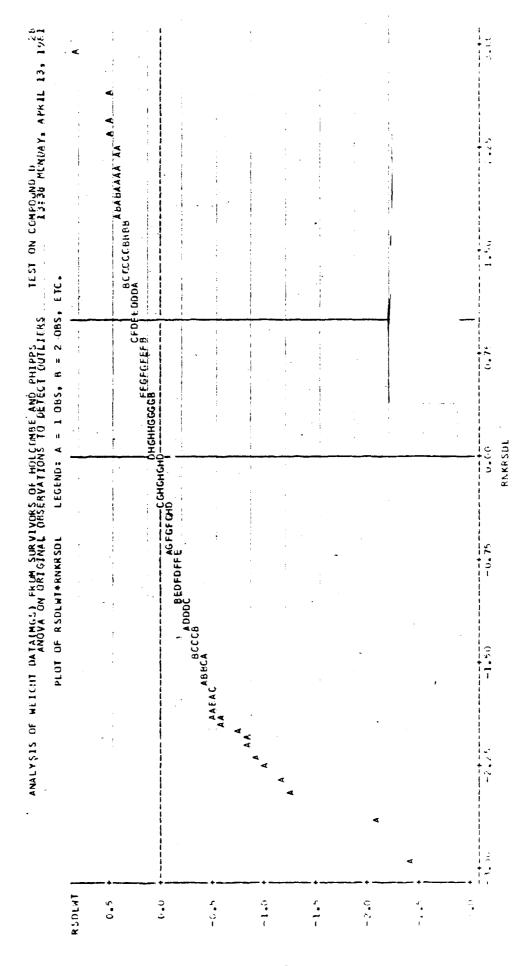
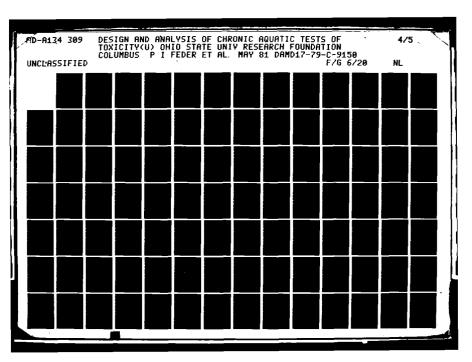


Figure XVII.11 Normal probability plot of residuals from untransformed weights



Normal probability plot of residuals from logarithmic weights Figure XVII.12





MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

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Regression fit of weight gain on $\log(1+\text{CONC})$. Holcombe and Phipps Compound D fry mortality data Figure XVII.13

XVIII. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS

In this section we consider a number of issues pertaining to the design and conduct of aquatic toxicity tests such as precision to be expected as a function of sample size, allocation of tanks among treatment groups, additional variables to measure, numbers of tanks to be run.

A. Assumptions, Additional Variables to Measure, Numbers and Allocations of Tanks

We briefly discuss several assumptions and recommendations associated with planning toxicity tests.

It is assumed that the constraint on size of test is the number of fish tanks that can be run within cost, manpower, and apparatus limitations. The cost of running a test is assumed to be directly proportional to the number of tanks run. Once a tank is put on test, the fish are essentially free. Thus a sample size strategy for early life stage tests is to run as many tanks as can be afforded and fill each tank with the maximum number of embryos or fry that is biologically sensible. This may differ for full life cycle tests.

A sufficient number of fish tanks should be included in the tests to be able to detect the presence of tank to tank heterogeneity within groups. If we have enough degrees of freedom among tanks within groups, the need for pooling mean squares in the analysis of variance in order to improve the sensitivity of tests or estimates of treatment effects is diminished. We can analyze the data on a per tank basis if we wish to, which is appropriate whether or not tank to tank heterogeneity is present. The main difficulty with per tank analyses is when the lack of adequate degrees of freedom diminishes precision of inference. We recommend that there be at least 12 d.f. to estimate tank to tank variation within groups. This would correspond to an average of 3 tanks per group if 6 treatment groups were being run. However to account for the possibility zero percent mortality in the control group and 100 percent mortality in the highest treatment group, it is suggested that 4 replicate tanks per group be run. This would provide 12d.f. for estimating variability just based on the results of the four intermediate groups. A glance at the charts of the noncentral t or noncentral F distribution shows that the power of analysis of varaince type tests based on 12d.f. is nearly as great as that with the infinite number of degrees of freedom. For example for $\alpha = 0.05$ and one d.f. in the numerator

noncentrality (\emptyset)	1.5	2.0	2.25	2.5	2.75	3.0
power, 12 d.f.	0.50	0.74	0.83	0.90	0.945	0.972
power, ∞ d.f.	0.56	0.81	0.89	0.94	0.973	0.989

The differences in power are of little qualitative importance.

An important distinction should be recognized between the numbers of tanks needed to estimate the variability of treatment group responses as opposed to the numbers of tanks needed to reduce the tank to tank variability. Suppose that we run J tanks per treatment group, n fish per tank, and that σ_T^2 , σ_e^2 represent the components of variation between tanks and between fish within tanks respectively. Then the variance of a treatment group average is

$$\frac{\sigma_{\mathbf{e}}^2}{nJ} + \frac{\sigma_{\mathbf{\tau}}^2}{J}$$

If $\sigma_{\rm T}^2$ is large relative to $\sigma_{\rm e}^2/n$, the only way to <u>reduce</u> the variance is by increasing J. However for fixed J, the ability to <u>estimate</u> this variance with 12 d.f. yields nearly as much sensitivity of tests and confidence intervals as an estimate with infinite d.f. This is also reflected in the fact that the upper 97.5 percentile of the t distribution is 2.78 with 4 d.f., 2.18 with 12 d.f., and 1.96 with infinite d.f. Thus 12 d.f., is most of the way between 4 d.f., and infinite d.f.

It should be noted that while we recommend at least 12 d.f., for estimating variablity, the tanks do $\underline{\text{not}}$ necessarily need to be equally replicated across groups. In fact we will suggest an unequal allocation later in this section.

Another important aspect of planning experiments is specifying classes of variables. At least six classes of variables can be distinguished: responses to be measured, controlled experimental variables, blocking variables, variables to be held constant, covariates to be measured, and variables to be randomized over. Rather than present a detailed discussion of each class of variable, we will emphasize those aspects which either vary from practice or are less obvious. In addition to the responses currently measured, it was argued in the previous section that individual times to death should be reported. This response must be measured but usually is neither reported nor analyzed. Obvious blocking variables are fish tank or test series. Other, less obvious blocking variables that might be incorporated into investigations are homogeneous subsets of fish (e.g., offspring of common parents, fish raised in the same breeding chamber, fish purchased from a single supplier at a single time, etc), investigators, laboratories, time period when test was conducted, technician, and many others. Some of the latter blocking factors would most naturally occur in round robin tests. In any test program a number of variables are held constant, at least nominally. Examples are water temperature, pH, hardness, levels of additives or impurities; type, amount. and frequency of food; type of fish tank; photoperiod. All these variables must be reported with the experimental results so that experimental conditions can be repeated and results compared across laboratories. Differences in variables held constant will sometimes account for discrepancies

in results. Covariates are factors which cannot be controlled but which can be measured and taken into account when analyzing the data. Covariates commonly reported are deviations from nominal in either controlled experimental variables or in variables held constant. The most obvious covariate is actual test concentration. This should be determined periodically in each tank and reported. The analysis of the data should be based on actual toxicant concentrations rather than nominal. The question of how to summarize toxicant levels has biological as well as statistical aspects. For example is effective level the average, the median, the maximum or some other? The question of frequency of measurement pertains to the short term effects of fluctuations in levels. The greater the effect of short term fluctuations in toxicant levels, the more frequently they need be measured. This aspect will not be considered further here. Other covariates to be measured and used for analysis might be water temperature, hardness, or pH, and measures of the size or health of the brood stock from which the test fish were taken. The remaining class of variables -- those to be randomized over -- is perhaps the most numerous. However the variables thought to be most important were included in the other five categories. These variables, many of which are not explicitely known, are randomized over. Their effects thus enter into the experimental variability. It is hoped that their effects are not too great.

B. Sample Size and Power Considerations for Quantal Survival Data

We first assume that there is no tank to tank variation within groups. We later modify the results to account for tank effects by adjusting sample sizes downward to "effective sample sizes."

If there is no tank to tank variation then it suffices to consider just the number of fish run per control or treatment group. Suppose that there is a control group (group 0) and I treatment groups (groups 1, 2, ..., I). In standard practice I = 5. Suppose that we run N₀ fish in the control group and N fish in each treatment group. Then test then involves a total of N₀ + IN \equiv C fish. If we carry out pairwise comparisons of treatment and control groups based on the arcsine transformation of observed response rates, the variances of 2 arc $\sin \sqrt{\hat{p}_1}$ - 2 arc $\sin \sqrt{\hat{p}_0}$ are $1/N_0 + 1/N$. We wish to allocate fish to treatment and control groups so as to minimize $1/N_0 + 1/N$ subject to N₀ + IN = C, fixed. This is a Lagrange multiplier problem whose solution is N₀ = NI^{1/2}. Thus the more treatment groups, the greater is the sample size in the control group relative to that in the treatment groups. This is because the control group enters into all pairwise comparisons whereas each treatment group enters into just one. The suggested sample sizes are then

$$N = C/(I + I^{1/2})$$

$$N_0 = CI^{1/2}(I + I^{1/2})$$

This implies that for every 100 fish tested, the allocation between treatment and control groups would be

<u>I</u>	Control (per 100 fish)	Treatment(per 100 fish)
1	50	50
2	41.4	29.3
3	36.60	21.13
4	33.33	16.67
5	30.90	13.82
6	28.99	11.84
7	27.43	10.36
8	26.12	9.23
9	25	8.33
10	24.03	7.60
11	23.16	6.98
12	22.40	6.47

We see that the allocation is far from equal if I is moderate. For example if I = 5, the control group gets 2.5 times as many fish as any of the treatment groups.

How effective in increasing sensitivity of inferences is this departure from equal allocation? To determine the sensitivity of various sizes

of tests to detect increases in response rates between control group and treatment groups, we carried out a series of power calculations. The null and alternative hypotheses considered were:

$$H_o: p = p_o$$

$$H_1: p > p_0$$

We estimate p_0 , p by the sample response rates \hat{p}_0 , \hat{p} and reject H_0 at $\alpha = 0.05$ if

2 arc sin
$$\sqrt{\hat{p}}$$
 - 2 arc sin $\sqrt{\hat{p}_o}$ > 1.645(1/N_o + 1/N)^{1/2}

Simultaneity considerations are ignored in this calculation. The power of this test is calculated for various levels of N, p, p_0 . The expression for the power is

$$1 - \Phi \left[1.645 - \frac{(\phi_{1} - \phi_{0})}{\sqrt{1/N_{0} + 1/N}} \right]$$

where $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the standard normal c.d.f.

 $\phi_i = 2 \text{ arc sin } \sqrt{p_i}$

 $\phi_0 = 2 \text{ arc sin } \sqrt{p_0}$

Calculations were made for the cases of equal allocation (i.e. N fish per group) and "optimal" allocation (i.e. $N(I+1)/(I+I^{1/2})$ fish in each treatment group and $N(I+1)I^{1/2}/(I+I^{1/2})$ fish in the control group. The usual situation, I=5, is considered. The results are shown in Table XVIII.1.

TABLE XVIII.1 POWER OF ONE SIDED PAIRWISE COMPARISONS OF SURVIVAL RATES BETWEEN CONTROL GROUP AND TREATMENT GROUPS. α = 0.05.

$p_{o} = 0.001$	N	50	75	100	150	200
p = .05		0.62* 0.67*	0.77 0.82	0.87 0.90	0.96 0.98	0.988 0.995
.10		0.87 0.91	0.96 0.98	0.99 0.995	0.999 1.000	1.000 1.000
.15		0.96 0.98	0.995 0.998	0.999 1.000		
.20		0.99 0.996	1.000 1.000			
.30		1.000 1.000				

$p_o = .05$	N	50	75	100	150	200
p = .10		0.25 0.27	0.32 0.35	0.39 0.42	0.51 0.55	0.61 0.66
.15		0.53 0.58	0.68 0.73	0.79 0.83	0.91 0.94	0.96 0.98
.20		0.77 0.82	0.90 0.93	0.96 0.98	0.993 0.997	0.999 1.000
.30		0.97 0.98	0.996 0.999	1.000 1.000	1.000 1.000	
.40		0.998 1.000	1.000 1.000			

^{*}Top number represents power under equal allocation. Bottom number represents power under optimal allocation, I = 5.

$p_o = .10$	<u>N</u>	50	75	100	150	200
p = .15		0.19 0.20	0.24 0.26	0.28 0.31	0.37 0.41	0.45 0.49
.20		0.41 0.45	0.54 0.58	0.64 0.69	0.79 0.84	0.88 0.92
.30		0.83 0.87	0.93 0.96	0.98 0.99	0.998 0.999	1.000 1.000
.40		0.98 0.99	0.997 0.999	1.000 1.000	1.000 1.000	
.50		0.999 1.000	1.000 1.000			
$p_0 = 0.15$	<u>N</u>	50	75	100	150	200
p = .20		0.16 0.18	0.20 0.22	0.24 0.26	0.31 0.34	0.37 0.41
.30		0.57 0.62	0.72 0.77	0.82 0.86	0.93 0.96	0.98 0.99
.40		0.89 0.92	0.97 0.98	0.992 0.997	1.000 1.000	1.000 1.000
.50		0.99 0.994	0.999 1.000	1.000 1.000		

The following conclusions can be drawn from Table XVIII.1.

- The ability to discriminate between treatment group and control group mortality rates varies considerably with N, p₀, p. Thus these calculations provide some idea of the discrimination capability of the test as a function of size. Remember of course that these calculations don't account for the effects of heterogeneity among tanks.
- 2. The effect of allocating more fish to the control group than to the treatment groups is minor. Equal allocation yields nearly as good power as "optimal" allocation and is logistically much simpler.
- 3. If $\underline{\text{no}}$ assumptions can be made about the magnitudes of survival rates to $\underline{\text{be}}$ expected at the various concentration groups then equal allocations should be used.
- 4. If we can say something a priori about the survival rates at the various treatment groups, then we should have larger sample sizes in the lower concentration groups and smaller sample sizes in the higher concentration groups. The aim should be to even out the power of treatment group-control group comparisons as much as possible across groups.

We now consider adjustments in power calculations to take account of tank to tank heterogeneity. We do this by adjusting downward the effective sample size in each group and then entering Table XVIII.1 with the effective sample size. We calculate the adjustment by use of the beta binomial model [21].

Suppose that the test consists of I groups, J tanks per group, and n organisms (fish or embryos) per tank. Thus the actual sample size per group is N \equiv Jn. Let X_{ij} denote the number of responses (dead, abnormal, etc) in the j-th tank of group i. We assume that X_{ij} is binomially distributed with parameters (n, p_{ij}) and p_{ij} is in turn beta distributed with parameters (α_i, β_i) . This model allows for random variation of the p_{ij} 's within the i-th group. Let

$$\mu_{i} \equiv \alpha_{i}/(\alpha_{i} + \beta_{i})$$

$$\theta_{i} \equiv 1/(\alpha_{i} + \beta_{i})$$

$$Then E(p_{ij}) = \mu_{i}$$

$$Var(p_{ij}) = \mu_{i}(1 - \mu_{i})\theta_{i}/(1 + \theta_{i})$$

The unconditional distribution of \mathbf{X}_{ij} is beta binomial with mean and variance

$$E(X_{ij}) = n\mu_{i}$$

$$Var(X_{ij}) = n\mu_{i}(1 - \mu_{i}) \frac{1 + n\theta_{i}}{1 + \theta_{i}} \qquad 0 \le \theta_{i} < \infty$$

Assume that $\theta_i \equiv \theta$ is constant across groups. Let

$$K \equiv \frac{1 + n\theta}{1 + \theta}$$

This is the variance inflation factor due to tank to tank heterogeneity. The effective sample size per tank is then n/K and so the effective sample size per group is

$$N_{eff} = Jn/K = N \frac{1 + \theta}{1 + n\theta}$$

As $\theta \to 0$, $N_{eff} \to N$, the number of organisms. As $\theta \to \infty$, $N_{eff} \to J$, the number of tanks. As $\sigma \to \infty$, $N_{eff} \to J(1+\theta)/\theta$. Thus the effective number of organisms per tank asymptotes out as the actual number increases. Figure XVIII.1 shows a plot of $n_{eff} \equiv n(1+\theta)/(1+n\theta)$ vs n for various values of θ . We see the diminishing returns of placing more and more fish per tank in the presence of tank to tank heterogeneity. However under the cost structure assumed in this section we still place the maximum number of organisms within each tank, which we assume is 50 for embryos and 25 for fry. These numbers of course are only working assumptions.

To get some feeling for the meaning of θ in terms of variance inflation factors, we calculate the factors corresponding to n = 25, n = 50 for various values of θ .

θ	0	0.01	0.025	0.05	0.10	0.50	1.00
Var.infl.fact.,n=25	1	1.24	1.61	2.19	3.18	9	13
Var.infl.fact.,n=50	1	1.5	2.2	3.3	5.5	17.3	25.5

We calculated variance inflation factors for several sets of Fathead Minnow data in Section IX. These were

1. Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry mortality

$$n = 25$$
, $\hat{K} = 1.337 \equiv (1 + 25\theta)/(1 + \theta)$

Thus $\hat{\theta}$ = 0.014 and n_{eff} = 18.78. Thus N_{eff} = 75.

2. Jarvinen compound B embryo mortality

$$n = 50$$
, $\hat{K} = 3.071 \equiv (1 + 50\theta)/(1 + \theta)$

Thus
$$\hat{\theta}$$
 = 0.044 and n_{eff} = 16.31. Thus N_{eff} = 65.

C. <u>Expected Precision for Comparison of Treatment Group and Control</u> Group Survival Probabilities

In the previous subsection we calculated the power to be expected for pairwise treatment group-control group comparisons of survival probabilities as a function of p_0 , p, N. In this subsection we calculate the expected half lengths of two sided 95 percent confidence intervals on $p-p_0$ for these same combinations of p_0 , p, N. We again assume no tank to tank heterogeneity within groups and account for such heterogeneity by reducing the effective sample sizes, as discussed in the previous subsection. We base the precision calculations on asymptotic normal theory. Namely the confidence interval half length is calculated as $1.96[(p_0q+p_0)/N]^{1/2}$. Asymptotic normality may not be a very good assumption when N=50 or when $p_0=0.001$, but it is only being used for planning purposes.

TABLE XVIII.2 EXPECTED HALF LENGTHS OF 95 PERCENT TWO SIDED CONFIDENCE INTERVALS FOR COMPARISONS BETWEEN TREATMENT GROUP AND CONTROL RESPONSE RATES

$p_0 = 0.001$	<u>N</u>	50	75	100	150	200
p = .05		.06	.05	.04	.04	.03
.10		.08	.07	.06	.05	.04
.15		.10	.08	.07	.06	.05
.20		.11	.09	.08	.06	.06
.30		.13	.10	.09	.07	.06
.40		.14	.11	.10	.08	.07
.50		.14	.11	.10	.08	.07
$p_0 = 0.05$						
p = .10		.10	.08	.07	.06	.05
.15		.12	. 09	.08	.07	.06
.20		.13	.10	.09	.07	.06
.30		.14	.11	.10	.08	.07
.40		.15	.12	.10	.09	.07
.50		.15	.12	.11	.09	.08
$\frac{p_0 = 0.10}{}$						
p = .15		.13	.11	.09	.07	.06
.20		.14	.11	.10	.08	.07
. 30		.15	.12	.11	.09	.08
.40		.16	.13	.11	.09	.08
.50		.16	.13	.11	.09	.08

$p_o = 0.15$	N	50	75	100	150	200
p = .20 .30 .40 .50		.15 .16 .17 .17	.12 .13 .14 .14	.11 .11 .12 .12	.09 .09 .10	.07 .08 .08

D. Power Calculations for Quantitative Weight Response

In previous subsections we calculated expected power and expected estimation precision for the quantal survival response. In this subsection we carry out similar calculations for the quantitative weight response. Distributional assumptions are based on the results of analyzing the Holcombe and Phipps compound D fry weights in Section XVII. There was considerable group to group variation in survival proportions but not as much variation in the weights of the surviving fry. In particular

	Control Group	Group 4	Group 5	Group 6
Survivors	94/100	87/100	21/100	0/100
Avg.Wt.of Survivors(mg)	131.2	113.1	108	
Max. Wt.	190	186	195	
Min. Wt.	45	29	34	
Std. Dev.	25.8	34.0	36.7	

Variability is not too dependent on concentration group or on survival rate. The variance components are assumed to be constant across treatment groups.

The power and precision calculations below are based on a number of assumptions.

- 1. There is no tank to tank variation within treatment groups. We discuss corrections for such factors later in the subsection.
- 2. Equal sample sizes among treatment and control groups.

This assumption is reasonable if we confine comparisons of weight gains to treatment groups with mortality rates not greatly in excess of the control rate. Otherwise an average or minimum N might be used.

3. Constant variability across treatment groups.

This assumption might hold for the weights themselves or for some function of the weights such as log weights.

4. There are enough observations to have effectively an infinite number of degrees of freedom. The power obtained with 12 d.f. is nearly that obtained with infinite d.f.

5. No simultaneity correction is applied.

Table XVIII.3 shows the power of a one sided normal theory test of

$$\label{eq:power_problem} \begin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{H_o} \colon & \boldsymbol{\mu} = \boldsymbol{\mu_o} \\ \mathbf{vs} & \\ \mathbf{H_1} \colon & \boldsymbol{\mu} < \boldsymbol{\mu_o} \end{array}$$

where μ , μ_0 are the average weights in the treatment and control groups respectively. In the absence of tank effects the individual weights are assumed to have standard deviation $\sigma.$ The bottom portion of the table contains factors C, for constructing 95 percent lower confidence bounds on μ_0 - μ . Namely μ_0 - μ \geq \overline{X}_0 - \overline{X} - $C\sigma.$

TABLE XVIII.3 POWER OF ONE SIDED PAIRWISE COMPARISONS OF AVERAGE WEIGHT GAINS BETWEEN CONTROL GROUP AND TREATMENT GROUPS. α = 0.05

_	N N	<u>10</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>35</u>	<u>50</u>	75	100	150	200
$d = (\mu_o - \mu)/\sigma$.02	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.07	0.07
	.04	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.09	0.10	0.11
	.06	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.10	0.11	0.13	0.15
	.08	0.07	0.08	0.09	0.10	0.11	0.12	0.14	0.17	0.20
	•1	0.08	0.09	0.10	0.11	0.13	0.15	0.17	0.22	0.26
	. 2	0.12	0.14	0.18	0.21	0.26	0.33	0.41	0.54	0.64
	.3	0.17	0.21	0.28	0.35	0.44	0.58	0.68	0.83	0.91
	. 4	0.23	0.29	0.41	0.51	0.64	0.79	0.88	0.97	0.99
	.5	0.30	0.39	0.55	0.67	0.80	0.92	0.97	0.996	1.000
	.6	0.38	0.50	0.68	0.83	0.91	0.98	0.995	1.000	
	.7	0.47	0.61	0.80	0.90	0.97	0.996	1.000		
	.8	0.56	0.71	0.88	0.96	0.991	0.999			
	.9	0.64	0.79	0.94	0.98	0.998	1.000			
1	L	0.72	0.86	0.97	0.995	1.000				
1	1.2	0.85	0.95	0.995	1.000					
1	L.4	0.93	0.99	1.000						
1	L.6	0.97	0.997							
1	1.8	0.991	1.000							
2	2	0.998								
2	2.2	1.000								
	С	.74	.60	.47	. 39	. 33	.27	.23	.19	.16

The power calculations and precision factors in Table XVIII.3 need to be adjusted for tank to tank variation within groups. Suppose that there are J tanks per group, n organisms per tank, and that σ_{τ}^2 , σ_{e}^2 represent the between and within tank components of variation. The variance of the average weight in the group is then

$$\frac{\sigma_{\tau}^2}{\tau} + \frac{\sigma_{e}^2}{N} = \frac{\sigma_{e}^2 + n\sigma_{\tau}^2}{N}$$

Table XVIII.3 is entered at N and at d = $(\mu_o - \mu)/(\sigma_e^2 + n\sigma_\tau^2)^{1/2}$

The precision factors at the bottom of the table remain the same but the confidence bound is μ_{0} - μ \geq \overline{x}_{o} - x - $C(\sigma_{e}^{2}$ + $n\sigma_{\tau}^{2})^{1/2}$

We now apply these relations to the weight gain data from the Holcombe and Phipps test on compound D. In that example there is no statistical evidence of tank to tank variation within groups. Namely

$$\hat{\sigma}_{e}^{2}$$
 = 900.354 with 366 d.f. $\hat{\sigma}_{e}^{2}$ + 19.191 $\hat{\sigma}_{\tau}^{2}$ = 754.97 with 15 d.f.

Thus

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\tau}^2 = -7.58$$

and we assume it is 0. Since σ_e^2 is estimated with 366 degrees of freedom, we assume it is known exactly. Thus $\hat{\sigma}_e$ = 30.0. The average N in groups 1-4 is 91.24 while the sample size in group 5 is 21. Assume for the purpose of power calculations that μ_0 = \bar{X}_0 , μ = \bar{X} . Thus μ_0 = 131.245, μ_3 = 127.924, μ_4 = 113.080, μ_5 = 108.095.

Therefore,

$$d_3 = \frac{\mu_0 - \mu_3}{\sigma} = \frac{131.245 - 127.924}{30.0} = 0.111$$

$$d_4 = \frac{\mu_0 - \mu_4}{\sigma} = \frac{131.245 - 113.080}{30} = 0.606$$

$$d_5 = \frac{\mu_0 - \mu_5}{\sigma} = \frac{131.245 - 108.095}{30} = 0.772$$

Interpolating (approximately) in Table XVIII.3 with N = 90 and d_3 , d_4 , d_5 yields

Control vs group 3 Power = 0.16 Control vs group 4 Power = 0.99

For group 5 the assumption of equal N is not reasonable and so we calculate the noncentrality parameter for the test as $d_5/(1/N_0+1/N_5)^{1/2}=3.186$. Thus power = $\Phi(\text{noncentrality}-1.645)=\Phi(3.186-1.645)=\Phi(1.540)=0.94$.

E. Unequal Allocations of Testing Effort Among Treatment Groups

Standard test guidelines call for equal numbers of tanks to be run at each treatment group. Such a design would be sensible only if prior to running the test there was total ignorance about response levels to be expected. That is suppose it was thought a priori that the mortality rate for each treatment group could be anywhere between 0 and 100 percent. Then it would make good sense to allocate experimental effort equally among treatment groups to assure specified power whenever and wherever the mortality rate exceeds that in the control group by a specified amount. However if on the basis of either a priori scientific information or previous testing some information was available concerning mortality rates to be expected at the various treatment groups, then unequal allocation of experimental effort would be preferable. In particular at the higher treatment groups, where mortality would be expected to be substantially higher than the control rate, it is easy to detect differences from the control. Thus the experimental effort should be decreased at these groups. At the lower experimental groups, where it is more difficult to detect differences from the control group, the experimental effort should be increased to improve sensitivity. Thus the degree of experimental effort should in general decrease as the toxicant level increases.

Details of a procedure for arriving at an unequal allocation will be discussed in the report on phase 2, for Daphnia magna. For the purpose of this subsection, consider the following illustration of the effects on sensitivity of unequal replication. Suppose that the experiment is to consist of a control group and I = 5 treatment groups. Suppose that cost and logistical restraints limit the number of tanks to 24, that n = 25fry will be exposed in each tank and that tank to tank heterogeneity is such that the variance inflation factor is 1.5. Suppose it is felt that the control group response rate will be about 0.05 and the mortality rates in the treatment groups will be about 0.10, 0.15, 0.20, 0.40, and 0.80 respectively. The classical allocation would be to run J = 4 tanks per group. Thus N = 100 fish per group. The effective sample sizes would be $N_{eff} = 100/1.5 = 66.67$ fish per group. Suppose further that it is considered important (biologically and/or legally) to detect increases in mortality of 10 percent above the control rate. That is, we wish to detect differences between 5 percent and 15 percent mortality.

Under the classical allocation scheme the power to be expected for each treatment group-control group comparison would be:

Group 2 vs control

$$1 - \beta = \Phi[(2 \text{ arc sin}\sqrt{.10} - 2 \text{ arc sin}\sqrt{.05})/(2/66.67)^{1/2} - 1.645] = \Phi[(.64 - .45)/(2/66.67)^{1/2} - 1.645] = \Phi(-0.53) = 0.30$$

Group 3 vs control

$$1 - \beta = \Phi[(.80 - .45)/(2/66.67)^{1/2} - 1.645] = \Phi(0.38) = 0.65$$

Group 4 vs control

$$1 - \beta = \Phi[(.93 - .45)/(2/66.67)^{1/2} - 1.645] = \Phi(1.13) = 0.87$$

Group 5 vs control

$$1 - \beta = \Phi[(1.37 - .45)/(2/66.67)^{1/2} - 1.645] = \Phi(3.67) = 1.000$$

Group 6 vs control

$$1 - \beta = \Phi[(2.21 - .45)/(2/66.67)^{1/2} - 1.645] = \Phi(8.52) = 1.000$$

Consider the modified e ocation of 7, 6, 6, 3, 1, 1 tanks in the control group and in each of the treatment groups respectively. Then $N_0 = 175$, $N_2 = 150$, $N_3 = 150$, $N_4 = 75$, $N_5 = N_6 = 25$. The effective sample sizes, $N_{eff} = N/1.5$, are then 116.67, 100, 100, 50, 16.67, 16.67. The power to be expected for each treatment group-control group comparison would then be:

Group 2 vs control

$$1 - \beta = \Phi[(2 \text{ arc sin}\sqrt{.10} - 2 \text{ arc sin}\sqrt{.05})/(1/116.67 + 1/100)^{1/2} - 1.645] = \Phi[(.64 - .45)/0.136 - 1.645] = \Phi(-0.25) = 0.40$$

Group 3 vs control

$$1 - \beta = \Phi[(.80 - .45)/(1/116.67 + 1/100)^{1/2} - 1.645] = \Phi(0.923) = 0.82$$

Group 4 vs control

$$1 - \beta = \Phi[(.93 - .45)/(1/116.67 + 1/50)^{1/2} - 1.645] = \Phi(1.195) = 0.88$$

Group 5 vs control

$$1 - \beta = \Phi[(1.37 - 0.45)/(1/116.67 + 1/16.67)^{1/2} - 1.645] = \Phi(1.87) = 0.97$$

Group 6 vs control

$$1 - \beta = \Phi[(2.21 - 0.45)/(1/116.67 + 1/16.67)^{1/2} - 1.645] = \Phi(5.08) = 1.00$$

Comparison of the two sets of calculations shows that we have improved the power of the comparisons at the low concentration end of the test without sacrificing any appreciable power at the high concentration end of the test. This has been done without increasing the size of the test. If we were willing to add several additional tanks we could do even better. The power for the comparison of the mortality rate 0.15 vs the control rate has been

increased from 0.65 to 0.82. This is a substantial improvement because the chance of not detecting such an increase in mortality has diminished from 1 in 2.86 to 1 in 5.56. This just about halves the type 2 error probability.

The previously suggested unequal allocation of experimental effort to concentration groups is intuitively sensible, improves sensitivity at the low end of the experiment where it is most needed, does not diminish sensitivity at the high end of the experiment, and does not increase the overall size of the test. It requires specifying prior beliefs about the response levels to be expected at the various concentration levels. A scheme for doing this will be discussed in the phase 2 report. However, it is pretty clear that the more definitive the prior information, the more unequal should the allocation be. As prior information diminishes to complete ignorance the design should approach equal allocation. Of course the efficacy of the design depends on the accuracy of the prior information. If it is believed a priori that group 6 will have between a 75 percent and 100 percent mortality rate but it in fact has a 15 percent mortality rate, then an unequal tank allocation scheme will probably do worse than an equal tank allocation scheme.

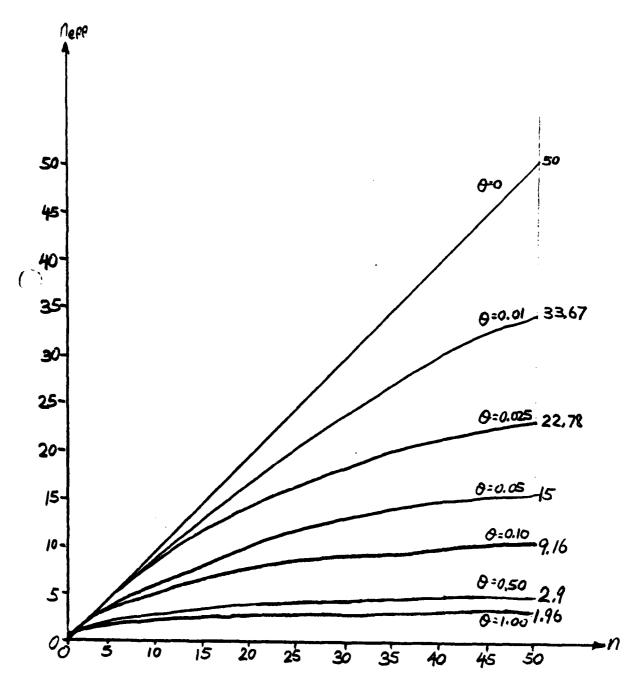


Figure XVIII.1 Effective sample size per group vs sample size for various values of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$

XIX DESIGN AND ANALYSIS CONSIDERATIONS FOR FULL LIFE CYCLE TESTS DISTINCT FROM THOSE FOR EARLY LIFE STAGE TESTS

In recent years, efforts in aquatic toxicity testing have been shifting more and more to early life stage tests and away from full life cycle tests. The results obtained from a full life cycle test are directly analagous to those obtained from early life stage tests, only much more of them are accumulated. Mortality rates are recorded periodically, length and weight measurements are obtained periodically, and fecundity responses such as embryos per spawn, total numbers of embryos, spawns per female are recorded. With respect to the survival, weight, and length responses the design and analysis considerations discussed in the previous sections are directly applicable and require no amplifications or modifications.

Some differences in design and analysis considerations may be called for with respect to the fecundity responses. Questions of homogeneity of variances, tank to tank heterogeneity within groups, form of dose response relation are handled in essentially the same manner as the analagous questions for the mortality and weight responses. Similarly, sample size determination and tank allocation design calculation need to be made in the same manner as those carried out for mortality and for weight responses. The statistical issues are the same, but the numbers may turn out to be different.

One design consideration associated with fecundity responses may well introduce important differences as compared with those for mortality and weight considerations. Namely it has been assumed that the cost structure is such that there is a certain incremental cost associated with adding an additional tank to the test but once the tank is added, the fish are free. This leads to the recommendation to run as many tanks as can be afforded and fill each tank with the maximum number of embryos or fry that is biologically sensible. This cost structure may not hold for fecundity responses. There is a considerable amount of operational and clerical effort associated with accumulating the hatched embryos, counting them, associating them with the appropriate fish or groups of fish, and properly recording the data. The numbers of embryos produced are related to the numbers of fish rather than to the numbers of tanks. Thus fish can no longer be considered free. Effects of competition on production must also be considered. In the presence of tank effects it may thus be sensible to increase the number of tanks in the test and decrease the number of fish per tank. This may improve the precision of statistical inferences without incurring additional expense. The particular trade off between number of tanks and number of fish per tank would of course depend on the extent of tank to tank heterogeneity and on the tank and fish costs.

All of these issues arise in the design and analysis of toxicity tests on <u>Daphnia magna</u>. Survival, length, and fecundity responses are reported at periodic intervals. The fecundity responses reported by various investigators include average embryos per surviving female per chamber, embryos per surviving female, total number of embryos depending on the design of the test. Questions of multiple daphnids or individual daphnids

per beaker are commonly posed. Thus most of the design and analysis considerations involved in full life cycle tests that are distinct from those in the early life stage tests will be addressed in the course of the discussion of the design and analysis of the Daphnia toxicity tests.

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APPENDIX AII * EARLY LIFE STAGE DATA SETS USED AS EXAMPLES IN THE BODY OF THE REPORT

This appendix contains listings of data sets from four early life stage toxicity tests. These data are used for illustrations of the procedures discussed in the body of the report. These data sets are

Benoit - compound A
DeFoe - compound C
Holcombe and phipps - compound D
Jarvinen - compound B.

The three types of data -- survival, weight and toxicant concentration -- are represented in three "card types." The first six entries on each card are the same across card types -- treatment group (col 2), replicate designation (col 4), card type (col 6), card member (cols 7=8), investigator code (cols 9-10), test code (cols 11-12). This provides enough information to sort the cards by investigator, experiment, type, group, and sequence should the data become disarranged. Card type 1 (survival data) contains in addition number of embryos tested (cols 16-20), number hatched live (cols 21-25), number of fry tested (cols 31-35), number live at end of test (cols 36-40), number normal at end of test (cols 41-45). Card type 2 (weight data) contains number of weights recorded from that particular chamber (cols 14-15), individual weights (5 cols per weight, up to 13 weights per card). Card type 3 (toxicant concentration) contains month (cols 16-17), day (cols 18-19), year (cols 20-21), toxicant concentration (cols 32-38) -- one determination per card. At the head of each type of information several lines of descriptive text are given.

^{*}Appendix AII is the appendix for Section II.

(01)

VESTIGATOR: JARVINON (04), TEST: COMPOUND B

2 10401 60

```
DATA FROM EARLY LIFE STAGE TESTS WITH FATHEAD MINNOWS
SIX LEVELS: 1(CONTROL)+2(LOWEST)+...+6(HIGHEST); 2 REPS EA (A+b)
MEASURED CONCENTRATIONS OF TOXICANT (MG/L)
 1 A 3 1040i
                030879
                                    0.00
 1 A 3 20401
                031579
                                    0.00
 1 A 3 30401
                032279
                                    0.00
 1 A 3 40401
                032979
                                    0.00
 1 8 3 10401
                030679
                                    0.00
 1 5 3 20401
                031379
                                    0.00
 1 6 3 30401
                032079
                                    0.00
 1 6 3 40401
                032779
                                    0.00
  A 3 10401
                030879
                                    0.22
2 A 3 20401
                031579
                                    0.24
2 A 3 30401
                932979
                                    0.19
2 8 3 10401
                030679
                                    C-29
2 5 3 20401
                031379
                                    0.23
2 B 3 30401
                032079
                                    0.28
2 8 3 40401
                032779
                                    0.18
3 A 3 10401
                Ú30879
                                    0.34
3 A 3 20401
                031579
                                    0.39
3 A
    3 30401
                032279
                                   -0.53
3 A 3 40401
                032979
                                    0.25
3 5 3 10401
                030679
                                    0.48
3 B
     3 20401
                031379
                                    0.36
3 B 3 30401
                032079
                                    0.42
3 5 3 40401
                032779
                                    0.29
4 A 3 10401
                030879
                                    0.46
4 A 3 20401
                031579
                                    0.55
4 A
                032279
                                    0.89
    3 30401
     3 40401
                032979
4 A
                                    .0.433 -
4 8
     3 10401
                030679
                                    0.72
    3 20401
                031379
                                    0.52
4 B
    3 30401
                032079
                                    0.88
4 8
    3 40401
                032779
                                    C.35
5 A
    3 10+01
                030879
                                    0.60
5 A 3 20401
                031579
                                    0.73
  A 3 30401
5
                032279
                                    0.91
5 A 3 40401
                032979
                                    C.61
5 5 3 10401
                030679
                                    1.10
5 6 3 20401
                631379
                                    C.59
5 5 3 30401
                032079
                                    1.10
5 B 3 40401
                032779
                                   ..0-51 ..
  A
     3 10401
                C30879
                                    1.10
  4
    3 20401
                031579
                                    0.96
     3 30401
                032279
                                    1.90
6 A
    3 40401
                032979
                                    1.10
6 B 3 10401
                030679
                                    1.40
  B
    3 20401
                031379
                                    0.69
6 8 3 30401
                032079
                                    1.60
6 B 3 40401
                032779
                                    1.10
```

```
INVESTIGATOR: DUANE BENOIT (01), TEST: A (01)
DATA FROM EARLY LIFE STAGE TESTS WITH FATHEAD MINNOWS
# EMBRYOS TESTED. # ALIVE AFTER HATCH. # NORMAL FRY AFTER HATCH
# FRY TESTED. # ALIVE AT ENC. # NORMAL AT END
 1 A 1 10101
                   30
                         24
                              23
                                    15
                                          15
                                               15
 1 . 1 10101
                    30
                         26
                               26
                                    15
                                          15
                                               15
 1 C 1 10101
                         20
                                    15
                   30
                               20
                                          15
                                               15
 1 D
    1 10101
                   30
                         24
                               23
                                    15
                                          15
                                               15
     1 10101
                    36
                         22
                               21
                                    15
                                          15
                                               15
     1 10101
                                    15
 2 8
                   30
                         21
                               21
                                          14
                                               14
 2 C
     1 10101
                   30
                         21
                               21
                                    15
                                          15
                                               15
 2 0
     1 10101
                    30
                         16
                                    15
 3 A 1 10101
                   30
                         17
                                    15
                               16
                                          14
                                               14
                                    15
     1 10101
                         20
 3 8
                    30
                               20
                                          14
                                               14
 3 C
     1 10101
                    30
                         22-
                               21
                                    15
                                          15
 3 0
    1 10101
                    30
                         22
                               21
                                    15
                                          15
                                               15
                                    15
     1 10101
                    30
                         12
 4 A
                               11
                                          12
                                               12
 4 B
     1 10101
                    30
                        - -18
                               18
                                    -15
                                          11
                                               11
     1 10101
                    30
                         22
                                    15
   C
                               22
                                          14
                                               14
 4 D
     1 10101
                         25
                                    15
                    30
                               24
                                               14
                                          14
                         -20
                                    15
 5
   A
     1 10101
                   30
                              -20
                                          Ue
                                               09
 5
     1 10101
                    30
                         17
                               17
                                    15
                                          06
                                               06
     1 10101
                    30
                         17
                                    15
                                          05
                                               09
                               16
 5 D 1 10101
                         24
                               24
                                    15
                                          06
                                               08
                    30
                         19
                                    15
 6 A 1 10101
                    30
                               18
                                          08
                                               80
     1 10101
                    30
                         20
                               19
                                    15
                                          03
                                               03
 6 C
     1 10101
                               25
                                    15
                    30
                         26
                                          12
                                               12
                                    15
 6 D
     1 10101
                    30
                         21
                               21
                                          1 C
                                               10
INVESTIGATOR: DUANE BENOIT (01), TEST: A (01)
DATA FROM EARLY LIFE STAGE TESTS WITH FATHEAD MINNOWS
SIX LEVELS: 1(CONTROL) +2(LONEST) + --- +6(FIGHEST); 4 REPS EA (A+B+C+D)
INDIVIDUAL MEIGHTS (MG) OF ALL FISH ALIVE AT END OF TEST (1-2 CARDS/TANK)
NUMBER OF HEIGHTS & LIST OF HEIGHTS
 1 A 2 10101 14
                 164
                       152 164 123
                                         13C
                                              094
                                                         150
                                                               205
                                                                     128
                                                                          086
                                                                                070
 1 A 2 20101 14
                  139
                                   129
 1 b 2 10101-15
                       -125
                            -- 180
                                       102 -165
                                                               170
                  090
                                                    103
                                                         135
                                                                     180
                                                                          140
                                                                                092
                                                                                     162
                  139
 1 5
     2 20101 15
                        106
 1 C
     2 10101 15
                  175
                        130
                             102
                                   143
                                         121
                                              131
                                                    172
                                                         120
                                                               150
                                                                          133
                                                                                125
                                                                                     121
 1 C -2 20101 15
                  152
                        118
 1 D 2 10101 15
                                              100
                             123
                                         133
                                                    100
                                                         090
                                                               183
                                                                    190
                                                                          073
                  136
                        080
                                   116
                                                                               084
                                                                                     090
 1 0
     2 20101 15
                  152
                        160
  A
     2 10101 15
                  090
                        240
                             125
                                   082
                                              120
                                                                          107
                                                                                     128
     2 20101 15
 2 4
                        060
                  110
                                   180
     2 10101 14
                        145
                              112
                                                                          090
                  123
                                         083
                                              124
                                                    100
                                                         155
                                                               111
                                                                    107
                                                                               161
                                                                                     142
 2 8
     2 20101-14
                  093
 2
  C
     2 10101 15
                  083
                        134
                              114
                                   118
                                        180
                                              160
                                                    130
                                                         180
                                                               132
                                                                    190
                                                                          084
                                                                               120
                                                                                     132
 2 (
     2 20101 15
                        109
                  131
 2 D
     2 10101 15
                  180
                        082
                             152
                                   180
                                        -173
                                             138
                                                    130
                                                         092
                                                               133
                                                                    130
                                                                          080
                                                                                140
                                                                                     115
 2 D
     2 20101 15
                  093
                        137
     2 10101 14
                        159
                              094
                                              151
                                                         096
                                                                          100
                                                                                     095
 3 A
                  110
                                   148
                                         080
                                                    121
                                                               144
                                                                    132
                                                                                112
 3 4
     2 20101 14
                  1-60
 3 8
     2 10101 14
                  113
                        162
                             070
                                   141
                                              090
                                                         248
                                                               182
                                                                          094
                                                                                098
                                                                                     131
 3 8
     2 20101 14
                  146
     2-10101 -15
                        -073
                                                               080
                                                                                     150
--3- €
                  110-
                             240 - 119
                                       -13C
                                              110
                                                    090
                                                         084
                                                                    193
                                                                          123
                                                                                086
 3 C
     2 20101 15
                  162
                        118
                                                                          092
     2 10101 15
                  110
                        150
                              200
                                   078
                                         093
                                                    115
                                                         122
                                                               101
                                                                                153
                                                                                     103
     2 20101 -15
                        -070
                  120
                                                               106
                                                                          125
                                         092
                                              132
                                                         099
                                                                    140
 4
  A
     2 10101 12
                  131
                        130
                              112
                                   132
                                                    112
                                                                                094
     2 10101 11
                  083
                        136
                              148
                                   060
                                         162
                                              139
                                                    157
                                                         121
                                                               091
                                                                    146
                                                                          134
     2 10101 15
2 20101 15
                                                               د09
                                                                                099
                  182
                        086
                              140
                                   106
                                        105
                                              165
                                                    130
                                                         184
                                                                    115
                  117
                        094
```

```
140 250 132 132
                                           114
                                                  123
                                                       105
                                                                                 072
 40 2 10101 14
                 121
                                                            110
                                                                 154
                                                                       120 131
    2 20101 14
                 111
                                       07°C
                                                  090
     2 10101 09
                  043
                       111
                            100
                                  064
                                            111
                                                       050
                                                            150
     2 10101 06
                 054
                       117
                            127
                                  098
                                       121
                                            157
                 270
                                  144
                                       125
                                            084
                                                  112
                                                       071
                                                            106
                       065
                            184
    2 10101 09
    2 10101 08
                  080
                       130
                            071
                                 166
                                       110
                                            078
                                                  137
                                                       078
 6 A 2 10101 08
                 024
                       034
                            025
                                  010
                                       021
                                            014
                                                  051
                                                       018
                       031
                            007
6 8 2 10101 03
                 037
                                            049
                                  031
                                       035
                                                  033
                                                       033
                                                            052
                                                                 030
 6 C 2 10101 12
                  041
                       059
                            051
                                                                       034 052
     2 10101 10
                 026
                       020
                            048
                                013 042
                                            082
                                                  037
                                                       024
                                                            042
                                                                  011
INVESTIGATOR: DUANE BENUIT (01). TEST: A (01)
DATA FROM EARLY LIFE STAGE TESTS WITH FATHEAD MINNOWS
SIX LEVELS: 1(CONTROL) +2(LOMEST) + + +++6(HIGHEST); 4 REPS EA (A+B+C+D)
     SEE DATA SHEET FOR NOTES
MEASURED CONCENTRATIONS OF TOXICANT (MICRO G/L)
                                   0.06
1 A 3 10101
              - 061179
 1 A 3 20101
               062579
                                   0.08
 1 A 3 30101
               070979
 1 8 3 10101
               060679
                                   0.00
 1 B 3 20101
               061879
                                   0.08
1 0
    3 30101
               070279
                                   0.10
1 6 3 10101
               060879
                                   0.07
    3 20101
               062179
                                   0.06
1 C 3 30101
               070579
                                   C.13
1 0 3 10101
               061479
                                   0.06
1 0 3 20101
               062879
                                   0.10
2 A 3 10101
               061179
                                  1.68
2 A 3 20101
               062579
                                   1.59
2 A 3 30101
               070979
                                  2.00
2 5 3 10101
               060679
                                  1.83
               061479 ....
2 8 3 20101
                                  1.69
2 B 3 30101
               061879
                                  1.27
2 5 3 40101
               070279
                                  1.58
2 6 3 10101-
               060879
                                1.70
               061879
2 C 3 20101
                                  1.40
 2 C 3 30101
               062179
                                   1.52
2 6 3 401-01
              -- 070579
2 D 3 10101
               061479
                                  1.84
2 0 3 20101
               062879
                                   1.84
3 A 3 10101
               061179
                              --- 3-03-
3 A 3 20101
               062579
                                  2.69
               070979
3 A 3 30101
                                   4.00
3 ø 3 1010i
               060679
                               -- 3.26
3 B 3 20101
               061479
                                   3.58
               061879
3 b 3 30101
                                   2.81
               070279 .....
3 b 3 40101
                                 -- 3-32
3 C 3 10101
               060879
                                   2.85
3 C 3 20101
               061879
                                   2.36
3 C 3 30101
               062179
                              .... 2 -72
3 C 3 40101
               070579
                                  3.61
3 0 3 10101
               061479
                                  3.79
3 U 3 20101
               062879
                                  3.44
               060879
                                  5.99
4 A 3 10101
4 A 3 20101
               061179
                                   6.37
4 A 3 30101
               -062579
                                  5.57
4 A 3 40101
               070979
                                   7.30
    3 10101
               060679
                                  7.06
    3 20101
               060679-
                                   6.83
    3 30101
               061179
                                   7.19
4 5 3 40101
               061879
                                  5.91
4 6 3 50101
               062579
                                  6.09
```

6.49

4 8 3 60101

```
4 8 3 70101
               070579
                                    7.92
    3 80101
3 10101
               070979
                                    7.80
               060879
                                    5.66
    3 20101
                                    6.21
               061179
  C
    3 30101
               062179
                                    5.23
   3 40101
               362179
                                    5.14
    3 50101
               062579
                                    5.44
    3 60101
               070279
                                    5.95
   3 70101
               070579
                                    7.02
4 C 3 30101
                                   7.50
               070979
  υ
    3 10101
                                    6.72
               061179
    3 20101
               061479
                                   7.57
                                   5.93
               362579
4 U 3 30101
    3 40101
               062879
                                   7.76
  ٥
    3 50101
               670979
                                    8.40
5 4 3 10101
               J61179
                                  -13-40
5 A 3 20101
               362579
                                  12.00
 A 3 30101
               070979
                                  18.00
5 8
    3 10101
               060679
                                  17-20
ט 5
               061879
                                  10.80
    3 20101
5 8 3 30101
               070279
                                  11.80
5-6-3-10101
               060879
                                  10-60
5 C 3 20101
               062179
                                  10.70
5 C
               370579
    3 30101
                                  13.10
    3 10101
               061479
                                  13.60
    3 20101
                                  15.30
               062879
                                  24.10
6 A 3 10101
               J61179
  A 3 20101
               062579
                                  23.30
6 A 3 30101
               070979
                                  30.00
6 B 3 10101
                                  29.80
               360679
    3-20101
              - 061879
6 B
                                  28-80
6 b 3 30101
6 C 3 10101
               070279
                                  32.70
               060879
                                  24.20
6 C
    3 20101
               362179
                                  24.20
    3 30101
               070579
                                  33.40
6 D 3 10101
6 D 3 20101
               361479
                                  21.20
               062879
                                  23-30
```

```
INVESTIGATORI DEFOE (DZ), TESTI C
SECRITH CASPTAR FILE STAGE TESTS WITH FATHEAD MINIOUS
# EMBRYOS TESTED, # LIVE AFTER MATCH, # NORMAL FRY AFTER MATCH
E FRY TESTED, # ALIVE AT END, # NOPRAL AT END
                      23
1 4 1 13201
                 50
                            29
                                 20
                                           20
                                     20
 1 0 1 10201
                  50
                       31
                            31
                                 20
                                      20
                                           20
 2 A 1 10201
                  50
                       1 6
                                 20
                                      20
                                           20
                            17
 2 8 1 10201
                  50
                       3 1
                            31
                                 20
                                      20
                                           20
    1 10501
                  50
                       30
                                      20
                                           20
 3 B 1 10201
                  50
                       33
                                 20
                                      19
                            3 3
                                           18
  A 1 10201
                  50
                       34
                            34
                                 21
                                      21
                                           21
    1 10201
                  50
                       29
                            23
                                 20
                                      19
                                           1 3
 5 A 1 10201
                  50
                       28
                                 20
                            24
                                      16
                                           15
    1 10201
                  50
                       33
                            33
                                 20
                                      15
                                           15
 6 A 1 10201
                  50
                       31
                            აა
                                 20
                                      00
                                           00
 6 B 1 10201
                  50
                       31
                            00
                                 20
                                      00
                                           00
```

INVESTIGATOR: DEFOE (02), TEST: C DATA FROM EARLY LIFE STAGE FISTS WITH FATHEAD MINNOWS SIX LEVELS + 1(CONTROL), 2(LO4EST),...,6(HIGHEST); 2 REPS EA (4,8) INDIVIDUAL WEIGHTS (MG) OF ALL FISH ALIVE AT END OF TEST (2 CARDS OR LESS/CELL) NUMBER OF WEIGHTS . LIST OF WEIGHTS 1 A 2 10201 23 1 A 2 20201 20 1 B 2 10201 20 1 B 2 20201 20 2 10201 20 2 20201 20 10201 20 1 10 2 8 2 20201 20 A 2 10201 20 3 A 2 20201 20 2 10201 19 2 20201 18 4 4 2 10201 21 A 20201 21 2 10201 19 0.90 4 B 2 20201 19 A 10201 16 2 20201 16 2 10201 15 20201 15 2 10201 00 6 A 6 B 2 10201 00

INVESTIGATOR: DEFOE (02). TEST: C DATA FROM EARLY LIFE STAGE TESTS WITH FATHEAD MINNOUS SIX LEVELS : 1(CONTROL), 2(LD45ST),...,5(HIGHEST); 2 REPS EA (4,3) MEASURED CONCENTRATIONS OF TOXICANT (NOTE NO UNITS GIVEN) 1 A 3 13231 000.350 1 4 3 20201 900.965 1 A 3 30201 000.074 3 40201 000,116 1 A 3 50201 000.368 1 4 3 60201 000.323 3 70201 000.024 3 80201 1 4 000.033 1 8 3 10201 000.078 1 8 3 23201 000.054

```
1 8 3 30201
                 091379
                                    300.045
     3 40201
                 091779
                                    000.018
     3 50201
                 072077
                                    000.042
     3 50201
                 072777
                                    000.026
1 A
     3 70201
                                    000.024
                 100177
                 100379
   В
     3 80201
                                    000.033
     3 10201
                 070579
                                    001.75
 2 4
     3 20201
                 090774
                                      1.02
2 A
2 A
                 071077
091277
     3 30201
                                      2.54
     3 40201
                                      2.24
2 A 3 50201
                 091479
                                      1.34
     3 60201
3 70201
2 A
                 091977
                                      1.03
2
  A
                 092979
                                      1.76
2 4
     3 80201
                 100277
                                      2.02
2 B
    3 10201
                 090679
                                      1.78
     3
2 B
       20201
                 091179
                                      2.34
2 8 3 30201
2 8 3 40201
                 091379
                                      2.15
                 091777
                                      1.74
                 092079
2 B
     3
       50201
                                      1.99
2 8
     3 60201
                                      1.54
    3 70201
8 S
                 100179
                                      2.01
2 R 3
3 A 3
       90201
                 100377
                                      2.01
       10201
                 070579
                                      7.47
3 A 3
      20201
                 070779
                                      5.66
    3 30201
3 A
                 091079
                                      4. 41
3 A
     3
       40201
                 091277
                                      4.28
       50201
                 091479
                                      6.16
3 A
    3 60201
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2 D 1 10603	50 29		25	23	23		
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6 7 1 10503	50 34	93	25	00	00		
 6 C 1 10503	50 25	22	25	20	00		
6 0 1 10603	50 29	00	25	00	00		

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APPENDIX AVII* THEORETICAL BASES OF CHI SQUARE AND PROBIT BASED TESTS OF TANK TO TANK VARIATION WITHIN TREATMENT GROUPS

A. Chi Square Test for Heterogeneity of Tanks Within Treatment Groups

Suppose that there are I treatment (or control) groups and J tanks per treatment group. Let $\mathbf{p_i}$ denote the probability of death within the i-th group, $\mathbf{i}=1,\,2,\,\ldots,\,I$ assuming homogeneity of tanks within groups. The heterogeneity chi square procedure tests the hypothesis

$$H_0: p_1 = p_2 = \dots = p_T = p$$
.

Let N_{ij}, X_{ij} denote the number of fish and number of dead fish respectively in the j-th tank of the i-th group. Let $X_{i+} = \Sigma_j X_{ij}$, $X_{++} = \Sigma_i \Sigma_j X_{ij}$, $N_{i+} = \Sigma_j N_{ij}$, $N_{++} = \Sigma_i \Sigma_j N_{ij}$, $\hat{p}_{ij} = X_{ij}/N_{ij}$, \hat{p}_{i} . = X_{i+}/N_{i+} , $\hat{p} = X_{i+}/N_{i+}$.

The chi test of homogeneity based on each tank separately is based on the statistic

$$\chi_{I}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{J} \frac{(X_{ij} - N_{ij}\hat{p})}{N p(1 - \hat{p})}$$
 with IJ - 1 d.f.

The chi square test of homogeneity based on tanks pooled within treatment groups is based on the statistic

$$\chi_{II}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \frac{(X_{i+} - N_{i+}\hat{p})^{2}}{N_{i+}\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}$$
 with I - 1 d.f.

The difference of these two statistics, $\chi^2 - \chi^2$, is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{J} \frac{(x_{ij} - N_{ij}\hat{p}_{i})^{2}}{N_{ij}\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}$$
 with $I(J-1)$ d.f.

This difference is thus a test of homogeneity of response rates across tanks within treatment groups and has a nominal chi square distribution with I(J-1) degrees of freedom if such homogeneity exists. Note however that the weights in the denominator of this "chi square" statistic have been calculated under the null hypothesis that $p_1 = p_2 = \ldots = p_I = p$. Thus if the response probabilities differ among treatment groups, as we have seen in the case with respect to fry mortality, then the weights are incorrect and the nominal null distribution is inappropriate. Thus this procedure leaves something to be desired.

^{*}Appendix AVII is the appendix for Section VII.

B. Probit Model Based Test for Heterogeneity of Tanks Within Treatment Groups

Let X_{ij} , N_{ij} , X_{i+} , N_{i+} , \hat{p}_{ij} , \hat{p}_{i} have the same interpretation as in subsection A. Let $\Phi_{i} \equiv \Phi(\alpha + \beta C_{i})$ denote the response probability in the i - th group where C_{i} is some function of the toxicant concentration in the i - th group, Φ is the standard normal c.d.f. and α , β are model parameters to be estimated from the data. Let $\hat{\Phi}_{i} \equiv \Phi(\hat{\alpha} + \hat{\beta}C_{i})$ denote the maximum likelihood estimate of Φ_{i} .

Finney's suggestion is to compare test statistics for lack of fit to the probit model based on each tank separately and based on tanks pooled within treatment groups. The lack of fit test based on each tank separately is

$$\chi_{I}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{J} \frac{(X_{ij} - N_{ij} \hat{\phi}_{i})^{2}}{N_{ij} \hat{\phi}_{i} (1 - \hat{\phi}_{i})}$$
 with IJ - 2 d.f.

The lack of fit test based on tanks pooled within treatment groups is

$$\chi_{TI}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \frac{(X_{i+} - N_{i+} \hat{\Phi})^{2}}{N_{i+} \hat{\Phi}_{i} (1 - \hat{\Phi}_{i})}$$
 with $I - 2$ d.f.

The difference is these two statistics,

$$\chi_{I}^{1} - \chi_{II}^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \sum_{j=1}^{J} \frac{(X_{ij} - N_{ij} \hat{p}_{i})^{2}}{N_{ij} \hat{\phi}_{i} (1 - \hat{\phi}_{i})} \quad \text{with } I(J - 1)d.f.$$

This difference is again a test of homogeneity of response rates across tanks within treatment groups and has a nominal chi square distribution with I(J-1) degrees of freedom if such homogeneity exists. Note that the weights in the denominator of the statistic are based on the fitted probit model and depend for their validity on the validity of this model.

APPENDIX AVIII.1* OUTPUT FROM EXAX2 COMPUTER PROGRAM

^{*}Appendix AVIII.1 is an appendix for Section ** ...

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Figure VIII.1 EXAX2 output

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FXPECTEU FRENUENCESS XSOURS = 6.76271 CUTOFF = 6.35371 CU		THAL			000.6	•	DEAD =	51.000	GRAND TOTAL =	170,000
CUL 1 24.500 55.500 50.000 CUL 2 24.500 25.500 50.000 TOTAL ALIVE = 49.000 , TOTAL DEAD = 51.000 , GRAND TOTAL = 1.2 N/AI = 9.3 5371 CHI SAUARED US: 0 6.76.271 SERV D CHI SAUARED = 6.76.271			¥	PECTEU	C. U.	S	XSpings =	11291.3	CUTOFF =	Dece y
TOTAL ALIVE = 49.000 , TOTAL DEAD = 51.000 , GRAND TOTAL = 10TIL SULARED US-D		200	-	24. 24.	506	25.500 25.500	TUTAL 50.000 50.000			
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41F1CANGE 1 9.35371 1 = 2.00	•	SYMPTOTIS GREERVE	140 C	UARED (QUARED	JS:0	271				
	•	1770 H A	1 ((((V)))	FICANCE 9.05	371 371 ,00000	*I = -0.9	0931			:

Figure VIII.2 EXAX2 output

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00 ()	e 0-4	ALIV: 30.000 - 33.000		DEAU 24.000 17.000	10171 50.000 50.000			
TUTAL	TRIAL ALTVE	şt	63.000	53.000 , TOTAL	DEAD =	37.000	GRAND TUTAL =	SO COP
	i a X ii	CTED F	EXPECTED FREQUENCIES	Su	XSQUAS =	0.38610	CU10FF =	მემიი ა
100 000 1	and a	4LIV: 31:50(¢.	18.500 18.500 18.500	TUTAL 50.000			•

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, GRAND TOTAL

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TOTAL ALIVE

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Figure VIII.3 EXAX2 output

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=	ECTED FREQUENCIES XSQUBS = 37.030 , GRAND TOTAL = 6.00	TOTAL ALIVE = 63.000 , TOTAL DEAD = 37.000 , GRAND TOTAL = 6.00 TOTAL ALIVE = 63.000 , TOTAL DEAD = 37.000 , GRAND TOTAL = 6.00 CUL 2		100	: : : : :	ALIV: 34.000		0540 16-000	191AL 50.000			
ECTED FREQUENCIES XSQUBS = 1.07250 CUTUFF = ".n ALIV: ALIV: 31.500 19.500 50.000 = 63.000 10.400 = 37.000 , GAAND TOTAL =	ECTED FREQUENCIES XSQUBS = 1.07250 CUTUFF = ".n ALIV: DEAD TOTAL 31.500 19.500 50.000 = 63.000 TOTAL DEAD = 37.000 , GAANN TOTAL = 48.50 0.000 ARED USED ARED 1.07250	ECTED FREQUENCIES XSQUBS = 1.07250 CUTOFF = ".0 ALIV" ALIV: ALIV: 31.500		TOTAL	AL EVE		3.000	. TOTAL	DEAD =	37,000	GRAND TOTAL =	10.0.00
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EMBRYO PORTALITY

DEFOE COMPOUND C

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Figure VIII.4 EXAX2 output

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AL ALIVE = 61.060 , TOTAL DEAD = 39.000 , GRAND TOTAL = 6.000	LIVE = 61.000 , TOTAL DEAD = 39.000 , GRAND TOTAL = 5.00	נָפָר נָפֶּר	ALIVE 28.009 33.000 - 17.000	:
EXPECTED FREQUENCIES XSQUBS = 1.05086 CUTOFF = 1.0 1	### SQUARED FREQUENCIES XSQUBS = 1.05086 CUTOFF = 5.0 ***********************************	TOI	ALIVe = 61.060 . TOTAL DEAD = 39.000	000°00:
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Figure VIII.5 EXAX2 output

EMBRYO MORTALITY

DEFOE COMPOUND C

Figure VIII.6 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.7 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.8 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.11 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.12 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.13 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.15 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.16 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.17 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.22 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.23 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.24 EXAX2 output

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YY = -2[N[A1] = 9.07234

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Figure VIII.25 EXAX2 output

JAKIMEN COMPRING & BHORYO MONTALSTY

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Figure VIII.26 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.27 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.28 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.29 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.35 EXAX2 output

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Figure VIII.36 EXAX2 output

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APPENDIX AVIII.2* DESCRIPTION AND INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE OF EXAX2 COMPUTER PROGRAM

^{*}Appendix AVIII.2 is an appendix for Section .III.

EXAX2--A COMPUTER PROGRAM TO COMPARE BINOMIAL PROPORTIONS*

Program Description and Card Input Information

Paul I. Feder and Susan A. Willavize

Department of Statistics

The Ohio State University

September 12, 1980

^{*} This work was performed with the support of the U.S. Army Medical Bioengineering Research and Development Laboratory, Frederick, Maryland under Contract DAMD17-79-C-9150 at The Ohio State University.

EXAX2--A Computer Program to Compare Binomial Proportions

I. Introduction

Dichotom us data arise in many fields of application. In fish toxicology experiments it is of interest whether an embryo hatches into a live fry, whether the fry has survived 27 days post hatching, whether the surviving fry are normal or abnormal. In toxicology experiments on higher animals, such as mammals, the presence or absence of specific types of tumors or deformities is of importance. Such responses naturally give rise to 0-1 or success-failure type data. Such 0-1 data are encountered also in many other fields. For example in industrial applications it is noted whether or not a unit meets design specifications or whether or not a unit lasts beyond the warranty period. In sociological applications it is of interest to note whether an individual exhibits certain behavior patterns, has specific opinions, etc. A myriad of additional applications could be cited.

Part of the analysis of success-failure data involves estimating the probabilities of "success" within various groups and comparing these probabilities across groups. EXAX2 is a computational tool to assist in carrying out such comparisons. Since the need for the program was motivated by problems arising in aquatic toxicology, the remainder of the section centers around such applications.

In toxicity tests on fish or daphnids, a number of test concentrations are run along with one or more control groups. Within each concentration group (treatment or control) several tanks or beakers are run, each chamber containing a number of the organisms under study. Within each chamber the numbers of embryos, numbers of fry hatched live or normal, numbers of fry surviving or normal at the conclusion of the experiment are recorded. It is desired to compare the proportions of live or normal embryos or fry in the various treatment groups with corresponding proportions in the control groups.

A preliminary inference of importance is to test the response proportions among the tanks or beakers within each group for homogeneity. If there is no evidence of tank to tank heterogeneity within concentration groups, the data can be pooled across tanks within groups and further analyses carried out based on binomial theory. However if evidence exists of tank to tank heterogeneity within groups, subsequent analyses must be adjusted to reflect this, either by adjusting the model or the data or by carrying out analyses on a per tank basis.

EXAX2 carries out tests of homogeneity of tanks within groups based on the chi square statistic. If the expected response frequencies are "large enough" the distribution of the test statistic is approximated by large sample chi square theory. If the expected response frequencies are not large enough for asymptotic theory to be applicable, the test statistic is evaluated based on its exact small sample distribution, derived from the exact small sample distribution of the contingency table, conditional on the margins (March, 1972). Individual tests of homogeneity within groups are combined by means of Fisher's method (Littell and Folks, 1971, 1973) to obtain an overall test of homogeneity.

EXAX2 also has the capability to test for heterogeneity of response rates across treatment groups based on responses pooled within groups. Either the exact small sample or approximate large sample distribution of the chi square statistic is utilized. Heterogeneity among tanks within groups can be accounted for either by modifying the chi square statistic by a heterogeneity factor (Finney, 1971) or by modifying the data to "effective frequencies" to reflect within tank correlation.

EXAX2 can calculate exact confidence intervals on the odds ratio of a treatment group response rate as compared with a control group response rate, based on the control distribution of Fisher's exact test for 2x2 tables (Thomas, 1971). The control calculations are based on responses pooled across tanks within the response frequencies would need to be modified to "effective frequencies"

to reflect within tank correlation.

Section II discusses program organization and capabilities and provides a more detailed description of the program's procedures. Section III contains detailed instructions for card input.

II Program Organization and Capabilities

Suppose that the aquatic toxicity test consists of N treatment groups (including both test and control groups) and K tanks or beakers per group. (EXAX2 can handle different values of K tor each group, however we assume a single K value for notational convenience.) Thus the responses within each treatment group can be summarized as a 2xK contingency table. The rows represent the response category (e.g. dead, live or abnormal, normal, etc.) Each column represents the responses from an individual tank. We wish to compare response probabilities across columns.

It is first necessary to specify the entries in the tables. A 2xK contingency table can be specified as a 3x(K+1) matrix partitioned as follows:

	Coll	CoJ 2	•••	Col K	Row Totals	
	1 ' '	X(1, 2)		1	R(1)	
Row 2	X(2, 1)	X(2, 2)	• • •	X(2, K)	R(2)	
Col Total	C(1)	C(2)		C(K)	XN	

where the X(I,J) comprise the "body" of the table; R(1) and R(2) are row totals; C(1), C(2), ..., C(K) are the column totals; and XN is the grand total.

The information in the first K columns of each matrix is inputted one column at a time either by specifying the body of the table (X(1, 1), X(2, 1), ..., X(1, K), X(2, K)) or the column totals and the first row (C(1), X(1, 1), ..., C(K), X(1, K)), or the column totals and the second row (C(1), X(2, 1), ..., C(K), X(2, K)) (See section III, intructions for card input). The remaining elements are computed and the complete matrix is printed. A single matrix or several matrices must be inputted, depending on the purpose of the analysis.

Each inputted matrix is first examined to detect and adjust for the following conditions -- if they exist:

- 1.) If any column totals are zero those columns are deleted, K is reduced accordingly, and the new matrix is printed.
- 2.) If any row total is zero or if only one column total is nonzero, then that table is the only possible table with the given row and column totals. As such it is defined to be degenerate and the observed level of significance (for future heterogeneity tests) is set to 1. A message to this effect is printed.
- 3.) Steps 1 and 2 above are repeated for each succeeding inputted contingency table.

We first consider tests of homogeneity within treatment groups and later we will discuss tests across treatment groups.

If a table is not degenerate, the expected cell frequencies (EX(I, J)) are calculated as EX(I, J) = R(I) C(J) /XN (I = 1, 2; J = 1, ..., K) and XSQ is calculated as XSQ = $\sum_{J=1}^{K} \sum_{I=1}^{Z} (X(I, J) - EX(I, J))^2 / EX(I, J)$. If K = 2 a correction for continuity is applied to improve the convergence of the distribution of XSQ to its asymptotic chi square form. Namely if K = 2

 $XSQ = \int_{J=1}^{2} \int_{I=1}^{2} (|X(I, J) - EX(I, J)| - 1/2)^{2} / EX(I, J).$

The table of expected frequencies and the user specified cutoff value, CUTOFF (for what constitutes a "large" expected frequency within each cell), are printed.

The table of expected frequencies is then examined to see if any of the expected frequencies are less than CUTOFF, e.g. 5. If not XSQ is considered to be asymptotically distributed as \mathbf{x}^2 with K-l degrees of freedom, and its significance level (A_i) is calculated based on thi square theory. The observed thi square value and its significance level (A_i) are printed. If one or more of the expected frequencies is less than CUTOFF, the exact distribution of the XSQ statistic is calculated. This is done by enumerating all possible tables with the given row

and column totals (algorithm due to Boulton and Wallace, 1973) and their associated chi square values. Under the assumption of homogeneity of response probabilities across columns the probability of each possible table, conditional on the row and column margins fixed, is (March, 1972)

From this exact distribution over possible tables the exact distribution of XSQ is derived. Based on this derived distribution, the significance level (A_i) of the XSQ value associated with the observed table (XSQOBS) is calculated as the probability of a XSQ value greater than or equal to XSQOBS. The observed XSQ value and significance level (A_i) are printed and optionally (see instructions for card input) the exact XSQ distribution is printed. The entire process is then repeated on the next contingency table.

After tests of homogeneity (asymptotic or exact) have been carried out on each treatment group, the significance levels A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n summarize the results of the independent tests of the homogeneity on each table. To obtain an overall significance level these independent A_i 's are combined as follows:

For groups where the distribution of XSQ has been approximated by its asymptotic chi square form, the null distribution of A_i is approximately uniform (0, 1). Thus $Y_i \equiv -2 \ln (A_i)$ has an approximate chi square distribution with 2 degrees of freedom, mean $E(Y_i) \equiv EY_i \equiv E(-2 \ln (A_i)) = 2$, and variance $Var(Y_i) \equiv VARY_i \equiv Var(-2 \ln (A_i)) = 4$.

For groups where the exact small sample distribution of XSQ has been used, $A_{\underline{i}}$ and $Y_{\underline{i}} = -2 \ln (A_{\underline{i}})$ have discrete null distributions derived from the null distribution of the contingency table. The mean $E(Y_{\underline{i}}) = EY_{\underline{i}}$ and variance $Var(Y_{\underline{i}}) = VARY_{\underline{i}}$ are calculated from the exact distribution of $Y_{\underline{i}} = -2 \ln (A_{\underline{i}})$.

In either case (i.e. exact or asymptotic) the values of Y_i , EY_i , and $VARY_i$ are calculated and printed along with the other resluts for each table. The test statistic for the overall test of tank to tank homogeneity within groups is

$$Z = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma Y_{i}}{\Sigma \text{ VARY}_{i} / (4 \text{ } \Sigma \text{EY}_{i})}}$$

It is calculated and printed at the end of the output. Under the null hypothesis that the tables are all homogeneous, Z has an approximate standard normal distribution. The null hypothesis is rejected for large values of Z.

We now consider additional applications of EXAX2. The program has the capability to carry out chi square tests of homogeneity across treatment groups and to construct exact confidence intervals on the odds ratios of treatment groups compared with the control. These applications are discussed in turn, beginning with tests of homogeneity across groups.

If preliminary tests do not reveal heterogeneity among tanks within treatment groups, then it is appropriate to sum the observed frequencies in the individual tanks within each treatment group. This results in a new 2xN contingency table which can be tested for homogeneity across treatment groups. EXAX2 can perform the appropriate summing within groups and then proceed with the chi square test across groups, based either on exact or asymptotic theory, as discussed above. Since just one contingency table is involved in this application, the Z statistic is not computed.

EXAX2 has the capability to compare, on a pairwise basis, the odds (p/(1-p)) within each treatment group to the odds in a user specified group; e.g. the control group. Using an algorithm given by Thomas (1971) an exact confidence interval is computed for each odds ratio (one per treatment group). The user specifies both the upper and lower alpha levels, thus permitting either one sided or two sided confidence intervals.

To illustrate how this works consider the frequencies for treatment 1 (the control group) and treatment T as forming a 2x2 contingency table:

	Col 1	Co1 T	Row Totals
Row 1	X(1, 1)	X(1, T)	Y(1)
Row 2	X(2, 1)	(2, T)	Y(2)
Col Totals	C(1)	C(I)	YN

Y(1), Y(2), YN designate respectively the two row totals and the grand total of this new table. The odds ratio PSI is defined as PSI = (P_1Q_1) / (P_TQ_1) where P_1 , P_T are the category 2 probabilities (i.e. "success") within treatment groups 1, T respectively and $Q_1 \equiv 1-P_1$, $Q_T \equiv 1-P_T$ are the category 1 probabilities within treatment groups 1, T respectively.

We estimate these quantities by

$$\hat{P}_1 = X(2, 1) / C(1)$$

$$\hat{P}_{T} = X(2, T) / C(T)$$

$$\hat{Q}_1 = X(1, 1) / C(1) = 1-P_1$$

$$\hat{Q}_T = X(1, T) / C(T) \equiv 1-P_T$$

$$P\hat{S}I = (X(2, 1) \times (1, T)) / (X(1, 1) \times (2, T)).$$

Thomas' algorithm is an iterative technique for finding upper and lower conficence bounds on PSI. It is based on the noncentral distribution of Fisher's exact test statistic.

III Instructions for Card Input

In this section we present detailed instructions for card input to EXAX2.

The card input consists of 5-12 Program Information Cards followed by the Data Cards and the Alpha Card. The Program Information Cards are, in order: one Input Option Card, one Parameter Card, one Format Card, one Header Card, one Labels Card, and from one to six Title Cards. These cards must be punched as described below:

1. INPUT OPTION CARD This card should have a l in card column l if the

subsequent data cards represent K tanks per treatment group and the tank data is to be pooled (summed) within each treatment group to produce one 2XN contingency table which will then be analyzed. There should be a 2 in card column 1 if no pooling is to occur. In this case, the data will be tested for homogeneity among tanks within treatment groups.

PARAMETER CARD

Card Cols.	Description
1-5	K = the number of columns in each contingency table (a right justified integer) (K is the number of tanks per treatment group.) K should be less than or equal to 12 if the number on the Input Option Card is 2.
6-15	CUTOFF = the smallest expected cell frequency with which the use of the asymptotic chi square approximation is permitted. If one or more expected cell frequencies are smaller than CUTOFF then the exact small sample distribution of XSQ is used. (CUTOFF is a real number with decimal point.)
16-19	blanks
20	NTITLE = the number of Title Cards used (an integer from 1 to 6)
21-25	N = the number of 2XK contingency tables, i.e. the number of groups (both treatment and control.) If the number on the Input Option Card is is 1, then N should be less than or equal to 12.
26-29	blanks
30	IOPT = 1, if the exact distribution of XSQ is to be printed = 0, otherwise.
31-34	blanks
35	IDATA = 1, if data card input is of the form C(I), X(1, I) (see the description of the Data Cards given below for an explanation of this notation) = 2 if data card input is C(I), X(2, I) = 3 if data card input is X(1, I), X(2, I)

Card	Cols.

Description

40

IC = group number corresponding to group (control or treatment) to which each other treatment group is to be compared when calculating confidence intervals on the odds ratios (e.g. the number of the control group).

It should be noted with respect to the specification of K in columns 1-5 of the parameter card that some groups may have L<K tanks. The associated contingency tables for these groups thus have L<K columns. These tables must be augmented with K-L columns of zeros by inputting K-L Data Cards containing zeros. The program will later delete these dummy columns and perform its computations based only on the original L columns.

3. FORMAT CARD

This card contains the format in which the subsequent data cards have been punched, e.g. (F5.0, F5.0), (see the description of the data cards given below).

Note: No I or A formats may be used! All 80 card columns may be used. The format statement may be positioned anywhere on the card and must include the parentheses (see any FORTRAN text for an explanation of formats).

4. HEADER CARD

This contains a special heading (it may be blanks) which will be printed above the output for each contingency table. Any or all of the 80 columns may be used.

(e.g. Embryo Mortality)

5. LABELS CARD

Card Cols	Description
1-2	blanks
3-10	A label for the first row of the contin- gency table
11-12	blanks
13-20	A label for the second row of the contingency table (e.g. "live", "dead")

6. TITLE CARDS

These cards contain titles which will be printed above the output for each contingency table. Any or all of the 80 columns on each card may be used. The number of Title Cards must agree with the entry NTITLE on the Parameter Card. If no titles are desired there must be a blank card here and NTITLE must equal 1.

7. DATA CARDS

An observed 2xK contingency table can be specified as a 3x(K+1) matrix partitioned as follows:

	Col 1	Col 2	•••	Co⊥ K	Row Totals
Row 1	X(1, 1)	X(1, 2)	• • •	X(1, K)	R(1)
Row 2	X(2, 1)	X(2, 2)	•••	X(2, K)	R(2)
Col. Totals	C(1)	C(2)	•••	C(K)	XN

The X(I, J) comprise the "body" of the table; R(1) and R(2) are row totals; C(1), C(1), ..., C(K) are the column totals; and XN is the grand total. Each Data Card contains the content of one of the first K columns of this matrix. This information are specified in one of three ways. If IDATA = 1 (in card column 35 of the arameter Card), the I-th Data Card must contain C(I), X(1, I). If IDATA = 2, the I-th Tata Card must contain C(I), X(2, I). If IDATA = 3, the I-th Data Card must contain X(1, I), X(2, I). EXAX2 will compute the other matrix elements. The format given on the second Program Information Card specifies the format under which this information will be read.

The K Data Cards for the first contingency table are followed by the K Data Cards for the second contingency table and so on until all N contingency tables have been given. There will thus be NxK Data Cards in all. The form of the data for each contingency table must be consistent with the entries on the Program Information Cards.

8. ALPHA CARD

Card Cols	Description
1-5	ALPHAL = the lower alpha level for the odds ratio confidence intervals
6-10	ALPHAU = the upper alpha level for the odds ratio confidence intervals.

These must be decimal numbers less than or equal to one and their sum must be less than or equal to one.

If the data consist of just one tank per group or if EXAX2 is instructed to pool data across tanks within groups, then confidence intervals on the odds ratios are automatically computed. If the data consist of more than one tank per group (i.e. K>1) and EXAX2 is instructed not to pool across tanks within groups then confidence intervals are not computed and this card may be omitted.

The input cards are placed at the end of the program deck between the //GØ.SYSIN DD * card and the/* card. The example below illustrates the input stream.

4 5.0 5 6 1 1 1 (15k,f5.0,f5.0)

EMBRYO MORTALITY

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	1	C	i	106	600	5.	ر 3	8 36	25	24	24					
	1			100	د0.	5;	3 31	0 30	25	24	24					
	2	A	1	100	603	50	3	1 31	25	22	22		·· • ·· •			
	2	Ø	1	106	03	5	3 31	6 35	25	24	24			•		
	2	Ċ	1	106	03	50	3	4 33	25	23	23					
	Z	Ü	ì	100	د٥٠	5	3 29	9 28	25	23	23					
	3	A	1	106	23	5 (3 3 5	5 35	25	23	23					
	3	0	ì	100	60ء	5 (3 3 9	3 3 3	25	25	25					_
	د	C	1	100	د و	5	2	6 26	25	20	20					
	3	Ü	1	106	دَ0 و	53	3	8 36	25	24	24					
	4	A	1	100	03	5 (3 3	0 30	25	21	21					
•	4	ø	1	100	د0،	۶:	20 ز	9 29	25	20	20				·	
	4	L	1	100	د0.	50) S.	7 25	25	21	21					
	4	J	1	100	60ء	50	3 (5 35	25	25	25					
	5	A	1	100	د 0 د	<u>څ</u>	3 3	2 31	25	02	02					
	5	۵	1	100	60.	50	3	1 27	25	04	04					
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In this example the tank data will be pooled within treatments and 95% confidence intervals (ALPHAL = 0.025, ALPHAU = 0.025) will be computed on the odds ratios between treatment one and every other treatment. There are six treatments with 4 tanks each. The exact distribution of XSQ will be printed if it is used in the homogeneity test; i.e., if any of the expected frequencies is less than 5.0 (CUIOFF). There are tive title cards preceeding the data cards from which the total number of embryos and the number alive will be read.

IV Program Limitations

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EXAX2 has limitations of time and space. The space limitations are due to the dimensioned size of various arrays. When pooling tanks within treatments, N must be less than or equal to 12 and when not pooling tanks, K must be less than or equal to 12. This limit can be raised by increasing the sizes of the arrays in the following table:

Program Location	Arrays
MAIN program	X, C, EX, ICHECK
SUBROUTINE TABLE	x, C
SUBROUTINE INPUT	X, C
SUBROUTINE INPUTI	X, C
SUBROUTINE INPUT2	X, C
SUBROUTINE EXAX	Y, RX, XSQT, D, V, U, DL1M

Depending upon the number of tables (with the given margins) that are enumerated in generating the exact distribution of XSQ, it may also be necessary to increase the sizes of the arrays SIG, XSQ, PROB and IPOINT in SUBROUTINE EXAX. Also in FUNCTION FUN (a part of Thomas' confidence interval algorithm) there is a machine-dependent constant (DPC) which should be set in the DATA statement to the largest real number the machine can hold.

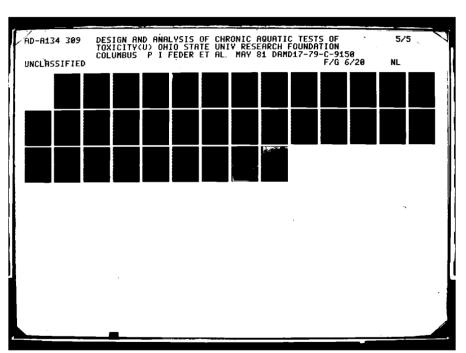
In some cases the CPU time required by the program may be quite large. No systematic study has been performed to determine when this is so, but the following two examples may be of interest:

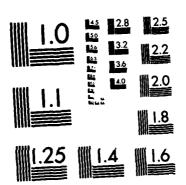
- 1.) For a 2x10 table with column margins all equal to 50 and row margins of 46 and 454, the smallest expected cell frequency is 4.6. If CUTOFF = 5.0, the exact distribution of XSQ will be generated requiring the enumberation of over 435,000 tables and a CPU time of over 10 minutes on the AMDAHL 470 V6 computer.
- 2.) For a 2x6 table with column margins all equal to 60 and row margins of 333 and 27, the smallest expected frequency is 4.5. If CUTOFF = 5.0, the exact distribution of XSQ will be generated requiring a CPU time of over 50 seconds.

It should also be noted that, as Agresti and Wackerly (1977) point cut, generally for a fixed grand total the number of tables enumerated (and hence the CPU time) in generating the exact distribution is much higher when the column margins are equal than when they are unequal.

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MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A

APPENDIX AX* THEORETICAL BASES OF SUGGESTED OUTLIER DETECTION TRANSFORMATIONS

In this appendix we discuss the motivations and theoretical bases underlying the outlier detection procedures that are illustrated in the body of the section.

Suppose that the data originate from I treatment groups, J tanks per group. Consider the i-th group. Let X_{ij} , N_{ij} denote the number of responses and the total number of fish in the j-th tank, $j=1,\ldots,J$, and let \hat{p}_i denote the pooled estimated response rate $(\hat{p}_i = \sum_j X_{ij}/\sum_j N_{ij})$, $\hat{q}_i = 1 - \hat{p}_i$.

In subsequent discussion we omit the subscript i for notational convenience and so these quantities are denoted as \hat{p} , \hat{q} , X_j , N_j , respectively. Let $N \equiv \Sigma_j N_j$.

$$\chi^{2} = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \frac{(x_{j} - x_{j}\hat{p})^{2}}{x_{j}\hat{p}\hat{q}}$$

This statistic is distributed as chi square with J-1 d.f. under the null hypothesis of no tank to tank heterogeneity. For the purpose of detecting outlying responses we consider three cases:

Case 1: All expected frequencies within the group are greater than a specific cutoff, e.g. 5.

Case 2: $\hat{p}<0.1$ or $\hat{p}>0.9$.

Case 3: $0.1 \le \hat{p} \le 0.9$ and one or more expected frequencies of responses is less than the cutoff, e.g.5.

We suggest somewhat different transformation in each case.

Case 1. All the expected frequencies within the group exceed the cutoff

Consider the individual terms in the chi square test statistic, $(X_j - N_j \hat{p})/[N_j \hat{p}\hat{q}]^{1/2}$. Assume that the weights in the denominator are "correct" and "fixed". The quantities X_j , \hat{p} in the numerator are correlated since \hat{p} includes X_i . It can be shown that the variance of

^{*}Appendix AX is an appendix for Section X.

 $(X_j - N_j \hat{p})/[N_j \hat{p} \hat{q}]^{1/2}$ is $1 - (N_j/N)$. If all the N_j's are equal, this variance is 1 - 1/J. If all the expected frequencies in the table exceed 5, as is the case with the Defoe compound C embryo mortality data, then the quantities

$$(1 - N_j/N)^{-1/2}$$
 $\left(\frac{X_j - N_j \hat{p}}{[N_j \hat{p} \hat{q}]^{1/2}}\right)$ $j = 1, ..., J$

can be treated as having an approximate standard normal distribution. Graphical and numerical outlier detection procedures are based on these standardized ratios. We pool them across groups and plot the resulting IJ values on normal probability paper. However, for the purpose of formal inference we account approximately for the correlation among terms within groups (approximately -1/(J-1)) by treating the J values within each group as if they were J-1 independent values. This adjustment of course has the most impact when J=2. The normality assumption might be enhanced by first carrying out an arc sine variance stabilizing transformation.

Case 2. Expected response probability within the group is small e.g. \hat{p} <0.1

Case 2 is also applicable to the situation when $\hat{p}>.9$, by concidering the complementary response.

The distribution of X, can be approximated by a Poisson distribution with mean $\lambda_j \equiv N_j p$. The variance stabilizing transformation in the Poisson case is well known to be the square root transformation. In particular, $2(X_j^{1/2}-\lambda_j^{1/2})$ has an approximate standard normal distribution. We estimate λ_j by $N_j \hat{p} \equiv \hat{\lambda}_j$. Now X_j , $\hat{\lambda}_j$ are positively correlated since $\hat{\lambda}_j$ includes X_j . It can be shown by a Taylor expansion argument that the variance of $2(X_j^{1/2}-\hat{\lambda}_j^{1/2})$ is approximately $(1-N_j/N)$. If all the N_j 's are equal, this variance is 1-1/J.

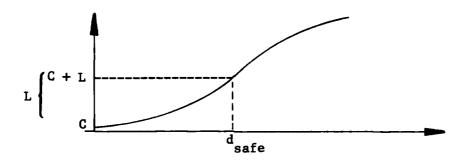
Thus if $\hat{p}<0.1$ (or if $\hat{q}<0.1$), the quantities $(1-N_j/N)^{1/2}$ x $2(X_j^{1/2}-(N_j\hat{p})^{1/2})$, $j=1,\ldots,J$, can be treated as having an approximate standard normal distribution. Graphical and numerical outlier detection procedures are based on these standardized values. We carry out the same types of analyses with these values as with the standardized ratios calculated under case 1. For formal inferences we account approximately for the correlation among terms within groups (approximately -1/(J-1)), as we did in case 1, by treating the J values within each group as if they were J-1 independent values

Case 3. Expected response probability is moderate (i.e. $0.1 \le \hat{p} \le 0.9$) but some expected frequencies do not exceed the cutoff (e.g. 5)

We follow the suggestion of Barnett and Lewis and carry out the arcsine variance stabilizing transformation. In particular $2N_j^{1/2}$ [arc $\sin(\hat{p}_j^{1/2}) - \arcsin(\hat{p}^{1/2})$] has an approximate standard normal distribution as $N_j \to \infty$. We estimate p by \hat{p} . It can be shown that the variance of $2N_j^{1/2}$ [arc $\sin(\hat{p}_j^{1/2}) - \arcsin(\hat{p}^{1/2})$] is approximately $(1-N_j/N)$. If all the N_j 's are equal this variance is 1-1/J. Thus the quantities $2N_j^{1/2}(1-N_j/N)^{-1/2}$ [arc $\sin(\hat{p}_j^{1/2}) - \arcsin(\hat{p}^{1/2})$], $j=1,\ldots,J$ can be treated as having an approximate standard normal distribution. Graphical and numerical outlier detection procedures are based on these standardized values. We carry out the same types of analyses with these values as with the standardized ratios calculated under case 1. For formal inferences we account approximately for the correlation among terms within groups (approximately -1/(J-1)), as we did in the previous cases, by treating the J values within each group as if they were J-1 independent values.

APPENDIX AXV. CONFIDENCE INTERVAL ON CONCENTRATION THAT CORRESPONDS TO A GIVEN LEVEL OF INCREASE IN RESPONSE OVER CONTROL GROUP RESPONSE.

After we have fitted the nonlinear regression model we wish to calculate confidence bounds on the safe dose. We use Fieller's theorem.



Suppose we're willing to tolerate a response rate L above the control group rate, C.

We want a confidence interval on d safe such that

$$\Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 d_{\text{safe}}) = L \text{ and } \emptyset \equiv (\beta_0, \beta_1, c).$$

The standard probit fit assumes that

$$p(\theta; d) = c + (1 - c)\Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 d).$$
 (1)

where c is the background rate.

We obtain $\hat{\theta}$ by a maximum likelihood fit of the model using a non-linear regression program or using SAS PROC PROBIT.

We then wish to solve the equation

$$\Phi(\beta_0 + \beta_1 d_{safe}) = L.$$
 (2)

Thus,
$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 d_{\text{safe}} = \Phi^{-1}(L) \equiv f_L$$
 (3)

^{*}Appendix AXV is the appendix for Section XV.

The point estimate for
$$d_{\text{safe}}$$
 is $\hat{d}_{\text{safe}} = \frac{\Phi^{-1}(L) - \hat{\beta}_0}{\hat{\beta}_1}$ (4)

Placing a confidence interval on d_{safe} is now a direct application of Fieller's Theorem. See Mandel [44], page 279 or Graybill [45], pages 126-127

Thus for fixed d, a 1 - α confidence interval on $y_d = \beta_0 + \beta_1 d$ is

$$y_{d} \varepsilon \hat{\beta}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{1} d \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{g + 2hd + jd^{2}}$$
 (5)

where $g = \hat{V}ar(\hat{\beta}_0)$, $j = Var(\hat{\beta}_1)$, $h = Cov(\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1)$.

The confidence interval on d includes all d's such that

$$f_{L} \varepsilon \hat{\beta}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{1} d + z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{g + 2h + j d^{2}}$$

$$i.e. (\hat{\beta}_{0} + \hat{\beta}_{1} d - f_{L})^{2} \leq z_{\alpha/2}^{2} (g + 2h + j d^{2})$$

Thus the limits on $d_{\mbox{\scriptsize safe}}$ are obtained by solving the equations

$$f_L = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 d + z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{g + 2hd + jd^2}$$
 (6)

Thus
$$(\hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 d - f_L)^2 = z_{\alpha/2}^2 (g + 2hd + jd^2)$$
 (7)

A necessary and sufficient condition for Fieller's Theorem to yield a valid confidence interval for d safe is that

$$\hat{\beta}_1^2 - jz_{\alpha/2}^2 > 0 \tag{8}$$

That is, $\hat{\beta}_1^2$ must be "many" std error units away from 0. Under the condition in equation (8) a 1 - α two sided confidence interval on d_{safe} is

$$d_{safe} \varepsilon = \frac{-B \pm \sqrt{B^2 - 4AC}}{2A}$$
 (9)

where A, B, C are

$$A = \hat{\beta}_{1}^{2} - jz_{\alpha/2}^{2}$$

$$B = 2[\hat{\beta}_{1}(\hat{\beta}_{0}^{-f}L) - hz_{\alpha/2}^{2}]$$

$$C = [(\hat{\beta}_{0}^{2} - f_{L}^{2})^{2} - gz_{\alpha/2}^{2}]$$
(10)

Suppose now we wish to calculate a $1-\alpha$ level lower bound on d safe. This is the value that could be used for regulatory purposes. By an argument similar to the one above, it can be shown that the form of the confidence interval is the same as above, except that $z_{\alpha/2}$ is replaced by z_{α} and the smaller root in equation (9) is used. Thus to calculate a lower 95 percent confidence bound on d safe we use the lower end point of a 90 percent two sided confidence interval and d safe, etc.

APPENDIX AXVI.1. CONFIDENCE ROUNDS ON BINOMIAL PROBABILITIES

We observe $\hat{p} = \frac{Y}{n}$ $Y \cap Bi(n, p)$.

We wish to construct a $1 - \alpha/2$ sided confidence interval on p.

These limits can be obtained easily using the <u>Clopper-Pearson charts</u>.

See Dixon and Massey [13] pp 501-504.

Tables of such confidence limits are given in Natrella [48].

$$P \{ p \le p \le \widetilde{p} \} = 1 - \alpha$$
 where

$$p = \left[1 + \frac{n - Y + 1}{Y} F(2n - 2Y + 2, 2Y; 1 - \alpha/2)\right]^{-1}$$

$$p = 0 \text{ if } Y = 0$$

$$\tilde{p} = \left[1 + \frac{n-Y}{Y+1} \frac{1}{F(2Y+2, 2n-2Y; 1-\alpha/2)}\right]^{-1}$$
 $\tilde{p} = 1 \text{ if } Y = n$

^{*}Appendix AXVI.1 is an appendix for Section XVI.

APPENDIX AXVI.2. DESCRIPTION AND INSTRUCTIONS FOR USE OF NONPARAMETRIC DOSE RESPONSE ESTIMATION COMPUTER PROGRAM

^{*}Appendix AXVI.2 is an appendix for Section XVI.

A COMPUTER PROGRAM TO CALCULATE NONPARAMETRIC LOWER CONFIDENCE BOUNDS ON SAFE CONCENTRATIONS IN QUANTAL RESPONSE TOXICITY TESTS*

by

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Technical Report No. 215

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I. INTRODUCTION

Dose response experimentation has many applications such as toxicity tests, bioassay, engineering stress tests, tests of response to advertising campaigns, just to name a few. This writeup considers application of dose response experimentation to tests of toxicity on fish and other water species. However the procedures and the computer program discussed are relevant to many other applications.

In aquatic toxicity tests samples of fish or other water species are exposed in tanks or beakers to the substance or substances under study. The exposures are carried out at a succession of concentrations starting at or near zero (i.e. the control groups) and progressing to relatively high and lethal concentrations. Responses of these creatures to the toxicant are recorded and degrees of response are compared across concentration groups.

Many different responses are recorded. Some of these are percent of embryos hatched live or hatched normal, percent of fry surviving for a fixed duration or to the conclusion of the test, body weight or body length of surviving fish, numbers of eggs laid, numbers of eggs hatched. These various responses give rise to several different types of data-quantitative (e.g. body weights), count (e.g. number of eggs laid), quantal response (e.g. hatch/no hatch, live/die, normal/abnormal). The discussion here pertains to quantal responses.

Quantal response toxicity tests often give rise to binomial distribution data. Namely within each test chamber a certain number of organisms are placed on test. Under reasonable assumptions the numbers of "successes" (e.g. numbers of fish per tank that die before the conclusion of the test) follow the binomial distribution. Many standard methods have been proposed over the years to fit models to such binomial dose response data. Finney (1971) and Cox (1970) discuss two of the most commonly used empirical models, namely the probit and logit do response functions. Background response is commonly accounted for in the models by means of Abbot's correction (see Finney, Chapter 7). Imber of other parametric dose response models have been proposed, based on empirical or on mechanistic considerations. See Kalbfleisch and Prentice (1980), pp. 195-198 for a description of a general family of dose response models.

Determining safe concentrations by inferences based on dose response curves has an important advantage over determinations based on hypothesis tests to compare treatment and control groups. Namely if a particular test is either too small or too variable then a hypothesis test comparing treatment and control group response rates may not be sufficiently powerful. It may thus not be able to detect moderate sized changes in response rate from the control group. This has the effect of raising the estimated "no effect" level, which is unconservative. Such a problem might well arise in the presence of a reasonable sized background response rate. By contrast, decreased sample size or increased variability reduce lower confidence bounds on safe

concentrations derived from dose response curve fits. In this sense, inferences about safe concentrations based on dose response curves are more conservative than inferences based on hypothesis tests.

However parametric dose response models have the common drawbacks that

- Inferences about percentiles, especially low percentiles, of the response distribution can be very sensitive to the specific functional form assumed.
- 2. Inference procedures are generally based on asymptotic normal maximum likelihood theory and may thus be inappropriate for data sets with small sample sizes or with many treatment group response rates near 0% or near 100%.
- 3. Results of the high concentration treatment groups,
 far away from the safe concentrations, have important
 influence on the estimation of the low percentiles of the
 dose response curve.
- 4. Background responses are accounted for in a structured parametric manner, such as by Abbott's correction. The form of this background correction may influence the determination of safe concentrations.

The procedure discussed in this writup avoids many of these problems. It does not require assumption of a specific functional form of the dose response curve. It is based on exact small sample distribution theory. It uses information only from the lower half of the dose response curve. It does not require a structured, parametric form of correction for background.

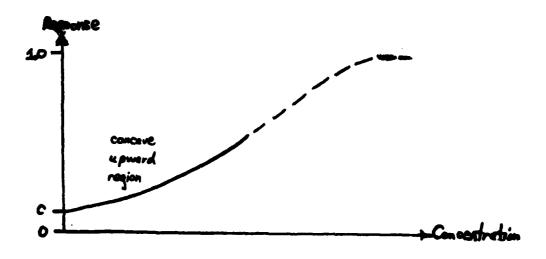
One assumption made throughout this writeup is that no tank to tank heterogeneity is present within treatment groups. This implies that the responses can be pooled across tanks within treatment groups and summarized by a single binomial distribution per group. If tank to tank heterogeneity exists it can be accounted for by adjusting the data to reflect within tank correlation, by fitting more complex models which explicitly account for such heterogeneity, or by carrying out analyses on a per tank basis. The procedure discussed in this writeup can be used in conjunction with the first adjustment approach.

II. PROCEDURE

The aim is to calculate a lower confidence bound on the "safe" concentration. The "safe" concentration is defined to be the greatest concentration for which the response rate is at most 100L% above the control group response rate. Note that this does <u>not</u> imply that 100L% response to toxicant is considered to be "acceptable". We wish to eliminate risk altogether. However, we can be confident with such a criterion that at worst we have limited the risk to this level.

The procedure described in this section is a nonparametric approach to determining such a safe concentration. Thus it is not necessary to specify a particular parametric form for the dose-response curve. The procedure was motivated by one discussed in Gross, Fitzhugh, and Mantel (1970) for quantitative response, but differs from it in a number of respects.

Consider a dose response curve relating percent response (e.g. mortality) to toxicant concentration.



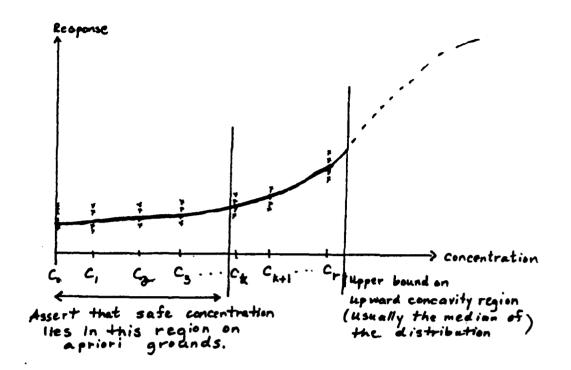
We concentrate on the portion of the curve that is <u>concave upward</u>. In the case of a probit or a logit model this would be all concentrations below the EC50, if there is no background and even beyond the EC50 if there is background response.

Suppose that the toxicity test involves several tanks per concentration group and that we have determined which concentration are in the concave upward portion of the curve (e.g. below the EC50). We might do this by looking at a graph or by a preliminary analysis. Let c_0 , c_1 , c_2 , c_3 , ..., c_r denote these concentrations. Since we assume the absence of tank to tank heterogeneity within groups, we pool the responses across tanks within groups to obtain the estimated response rates \hat{p}_0 at c_0 (control), \hat{p}_1 at c_1 , \hat{p}_2 at c_2 , \hat{p}_3 at c_3 , ..., \hat{p}_r at c_r . Let p_0 , p_1 , p_2 , p_3 , ..., p_r denote the "true" response rates at these concentrations.

We wish to construct a lower confidence bound on the "safe" concentration.

Definition. A safe concentration is one that increases the response at most L (limit) units above background.

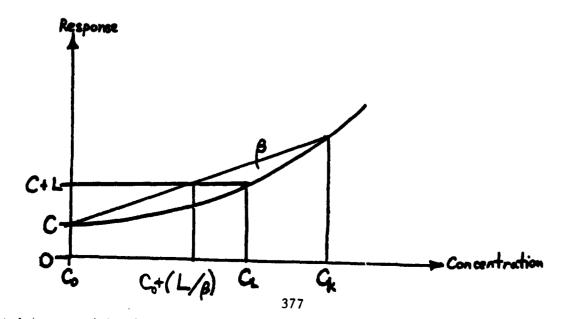
Let C_L denote this "safe" concentration. Suppose it can be asserted on a priori grounds that C_L lies in the interval $(0, C_k)$ where $C_1 \leq C_k \leq C_r$.



We construct upper bounds on the dose response curve. These upper bounds will be used to construct lower bounds on C_L . First construct a chord joining (C_0, p_0) and (C_k, p_k) . Let β denote its slope.

$$\beta = \frac{p_k - p_0}{C_k - C_0} \tag{1}$$

Concavity implies that the chord lies above the dose response curve



throughout the interval (C_0, C_k) . Thus L/β is a lower bound on C_L .

Let p_k be an exact upper confidence bound on p_k and let p_0 be an exact lower confidence bound on p_0 . Expressions for such exact confidence bounds on p_0 , p_k were derived by Clopper and Pearson (1934) and are contained in Hollander and Wolfe (1973), p_0 . 23-24. Set

$$\hat{\beta}_{u} = \frac{\hat{P}_{k} - \hat{P}_{0}}{\hat{C}_{k} - \hat{C}_{0}} \tag{2}$$

Then $\hat{\beta}_u$ is an upper confidence bound on β . Thus $C_0 + L/\hat{\beta}_u$ is a lower confidence bound on L/β and therefore also on C_L . Since we assume that $C_L \leq C_k$, our final lower confidence bound on C_l is

$$\hat{c}_{L} = \min(c_{0} + L/\hat{\beta}_{u}, c_{k})$$
 (3)

It may be possible to increase \hat{C}_L by including information from $C_{k+1}, c_{k+2}, \ldots, C_r$ in addition to that from C_0, C_k . Namely, we fit straight lines using $(C_0, C_k), (C_0, C_{k+1}), (C_0, C_{k+2}), \ldots, (C_0, C_r), (C_0, C_k, C_{k+1}), (C_0, C_k, C_{k+2}), \ldots, (C_0, C_k, C_r), (C_0, C_{k+1}, C_{k+2}), (C_0, C_{k+1}, C_{k+3}), \ldots, (C_0, C_{k+1}, C_r), \ldots, (C_0, C_k, C_{k+1}, C_{k+2}), \ldots, C_r)$. That is, we include C_0 and all possible combinations of $(C_k, C_{k+1}, \ldots, C_r)$. Thus there will be $2^{(r-k+1)} - 1$ lines calculated altogether. The lines are fitted by ordinary least squares.

Consider the caluclation of an upper bound on the slope of the line based on the subset of concentrations: C_0 , C_{k_1} , C_{k_2} , ..., C_k where $C_k \leq C_{k_1} \leq C_{k_2} \leq C_{k_3} \leq C_r$. Denote this as the "s-th subset" (in some ordering of subsets). Define

$$\overline{C}_{s} = (C_{0} + \sum_{j=1}^{J} C_{k_{j}})/(J+1)$$
 (4)

$$\hat{\beta}_{u,s} = \frac{(c_0 - \overline{c}_s)p_0^* + \sum_{j=1}^{J} (c_{k_j} - \overline{c}_s)p_{kj}^*}{(c_0 - \overline{c}_s)^2 + \sum_{j=1}^{J} (c_{k_j} - \overline{c}_s)^2}$$
(5)

$$p_0^* = p_0$$

$$p_{j}^{*} = \begin{cases} p_{k_{j}} & \text{if } C_{k_{j}} < \overline{C}_{s} \\ p_{k_{j}}^{*} & \text{if } C_{k_{j}} > C_{s} \end{cases}$$
(6)

 $s = 1, 2, ..., 2^{(r-k+1)} - 1$. We let

$$\hat{\beta}_{u} = \min_{S} \hat{\beta}_{u,s} \tag{7}$$

$$\hat{C}_{L} = \min(L/\hat{\beta}_{u}, C_{k})$$
 (8)

There is a problem associated with simultaneous inference. We wish to assert with a given level of confidence that $\hat{\beta}_u \geq \beta$. It can be proved that if $p_j \leq p_j \leq \hat{p_j}$, j=0, k, k+1, k+2, ..., r then $\hat{\beta}_u \geq \beta$. To guarantee this, with specified probability $1-\alpha$, we use Bonferroni's inequality. Namely we calculate r-k+2 simultaneous two-sided $1-\alpha$ confidence intervals by calculating each two-sided confidence interval at level $1-\alpha/(r-k+2)$. Thus, with probability $1-\alpha$, at least, all the intervals are assured of containing their "true" response rates.

In the case of "large" samples we can calculate alternative upper bounds on β by use of the normal approximation to the binomial distribution. Assume for definiteness that the minimum cell frequency is at least 5. That is, $N_j \hat{p}_j \geq 5$, $N_j \hat{q}_j \geq 5$, j=0, k, k+1, ..., r. (Actually Dixon and Massey (1969), page 238, state a more liberal standard.) Then

$$\hat{\beta}_{s} = \frac{(c_{0} - \overline{c}_{s})\hat{p}_{0} + \sum_{j=1}^{J} (c_{k_{j}} - \overline{c}_{s})\hat{p}_{k_{j}}}{(c_{0} - \overline{c}_{s})^{2} + \sum_{j=1}^{J} (c_{k_{j}} - \overline{c}_{s})^{2}}$$
(9)

is a point estimate of

$$\beta_{0,s} = \frac{(c_0 - \overline{c}_s)p_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{J} (c_{k_j} - \overline{c}_s)p_{k_j}}{(c_0 - \overline{c}_s)^2 + \sum_{j=1}^{J} (c_{k_j} - \overline{c}_s)^2} \ge \beta$$
 (10)

and

$$\hat{s.e.}(\hat{\beta}_{s}) \equiv std.\hat{e}rr. \ (\hat{\beta}_{s}) = \begin{bmatrix} (c_{0} - \overline{c}_{s})^{2} & \frac{\hat{p}_{0}\hat{q}_{0}}{N_{0}} + \sum_{j=1}^{J} (c_{k_{j}} - \overline{c}_{s})^{2} & \frac{\hat{p}_{k_{j}}\hat{q}_{k_{j}}}{N_{j}} \\ \hline [(c_{0} - \overline{c}_{s})^{2} + \sum_{j=1}^{J} (c_{k_{j}} - \overline{c}_{s})^{2}]^{2} \end{bmatrix}^{1/2}$$
(11)

Thus

$$\hat{\beta}_{u,s} \equiv \hat{\beta}_s + z_{1-\alpha} \hat{s.e.} (\hat{\beta}_s)$$
 (12)

is an upper 1 - α level normal theory confidence bound on β .

To obtain simultaneous upper confidence intervals we use Bonferroni's inequality for family size $2^{(r-k+1)}-1$; i.e., individual intervals at level $1-\alpha/(2^{r-k+1}-1)$. As before

$$\hat{\beta}_{u} = \min_{S} \hat{\beta}_{u,s}$$
 (13)

$$\hat{C}_{L} = \min(L/\hat{B}, C_{k})$$
 (14)

III. INSTRUCTIONS FOR PROGRAM INPUT

Mortality or Abnormality Data:

In this program, Subroutine RDSURV handles mortality data input. The mortality or abnormality data is read from <u>Fortran file 4</u>. Each input card of the mortality data must supply the program with the following two numbers (in this order):

- The number of organisms tested in each replicate of each treatment, and
- the number of organisms in each replicate surviving the test (or surviving normally).

The data must be inputted according to increasing order of treatments.

Important. The user supplies the input format for the card image of the survival data (see input card 4 in Fortran file 5) with variable format statements.

Concentration (Dose) Data:

In this program, Subroutine RDCONC handles concentration data input. The concentration data is read from <u>Fortran file 9</u>. Each input card from this file must supply the program with the following two numbers (in this order):

- 1. The treatment number, and
- the concentration measurement corresponding to this treatment number.

Notes to the user:

- 1. The data must be inputted in increasing order of treatments.
- 2. The user may input many concentration measurements for a given treatment since the program calculates an <u>average</u> concentration for each treatment.

Important. The input format for the card image of the concentration data is user-supplied with variable format statements. (See input card 6 in Fortran file 5).

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Figure 1. Example of Program Input Stream.

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  A PRY TESTEU, # ALIVE AT END, # NURMAL AF END
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Mortality data set.
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Cond#4 in Figure 1.

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   0 3 10101
                200019
   . 1816ء میں۔۔۔۔۔ تا 1313ء ہے۔ ت
   . 11306 ... 2020 ....
 1 6 3 30101
                J76577
    3 LOICE
                361479
   u a cala. ... ... 10628.79...
                Jo1179
                302579
                000019
 2 8 3 20101
                J61419
                                  ---1 - 27
   5-5-31-01 - J61-47-9 -
                573279
 2 3 3 401CL
                360019
                                                      Concentration data set.
 4.4.3.40131 .... 161879...
                062179
    3 30101
                                                      The two columns with
                J7U579
                                                      * at the top are those
 2 0 3 23131
 3 4 3 LOIGE
                Jo1119
                                                     being used in this example,
370979
                                                     as specified in cord #6 in
                J60019
المقامة والعاف
                                    3.58
              161479
                                                     Figure 1.
                U013/9
                J76219
 3 L 3 40101
                361379
   L 2 22131
                                    2.72
                362179
     3 401CL
                U70517
                                    3.51
                                    3.79
                266019
              _______9
     2 50131
                361119
                                   ...7.32
                J76719
   0 3 13131
                J50017
                U50519
                001379
                462577 .
                                    0.07
                476279
                                    6.49
     ين نن د
                J70579
                370919
   0 3 05101
     2 10101
                366479
```

```
4 L 3 EU101 U61114
     C 3 30101 5521/9
      U 3 40101 U621/9
     L 3 30101 J62579
    4 6 3 60101 - 375279 -
    4.4.3 10101. 20145/19 ...
                                           7.02.
    4 6 3 30101 070419
                                          7.50
    4 U 3 10101 J61119
                                           0.72
    ٠٠. --- 2010ء -- 361479
                                       7.27.....
    4 U 3 40101 062579
                                          7.75
    42
    5 A 5 10101 Coll79
                                        13.40
    5 A 3 20101 362579
                                         12.00

      5 A 5 50401
      070979
      15.00

      5 B 3 10101
      060579
      17520

                                     -5-4-3-20104 - -61619
    11.60
                                          10.60
    5 L 3 30101 070579
5 L 3 10101 061479

      6 A 3 10101 061179
      24.10

      6 A 3 20101 062579
      23.30

    6-A-3-30104 373979 35-00-

    0 0 3 10101
    363579
    29.80

    0 0 3 20101
    361879
    28.30

    0 0 3 30101
    373279
    32.70

      6 U 3 10101
      060879
      24.20

      6 U 3 20101
      362119
      24.20 -

      6 U 3 20101
      362119
      33.40

      6 U 3 10101
      061479
      21.20

      6 U 3 20101
      062379
      23.30
```

Figure 2. Sample Card Input Deck on the AMDAHL 470 V6 Computer.

DATA INPUT

Values Used by the Program:

The input cards are read from Fortran file 5. There must be 9 input cards in this file. An example input stream is illustrated in Figure 1 and a sample deck suitable for card input on the AMDAHL 470 V6 computer is illustrated in Figure 2. The following descriptions refer to the numbered cards in Figure 1.

Card #1 is the title card. The user is to choose a title or message and place it anywhere in the first 72 columns of this card.
If the user does not wish to supply a title, this first card must be blank.

A typical title is illustrated on the Fortran Coding Form, line 1.

Card #2 contains the number of treatments and the number of replicate tanks within each treatment. Suppose N1 = number of treatments and N2 = number of replicates. N1 and N2 must be integer values.

If $1 \le N1 \le 9$, place N1 in column 2 of this card.

If N1 = 10, place N1 in columns 1 and 2 of the card.

If $1 \le N2 \le 9$, place N2 in column 4.

If N2 = a two-digit number, place N2 in columns 3 and 4.
(See program limitation 1.)

An example of this card is found on Fortran Coding Form, line 2. The numbers '6' and '4' indicate that there are 6 treatments with 4 replicates in each treatment. If $0 \le NS \le 9$, place NS in column 2 of this card.

If $10 \le NS \le 99$, place NS in columns 1 and 2.

Note: If the user has no descriptive cards in the mortality dataset, place a '0' in column 2 of the card.

An example of this card is found on the Fortran Coding Form, line 3. The number '5' indicates that there are 5 descriptive cards at the head of the mortality dataset.

Card #4 contains the format for the input line image of the mortality data. This format must supply the program with the following two values (in this order): The number of objects tested within a given replicate of a given treatment, and the number of these objects surviving the test (or surviving normally). Line 4 on the Fortran Coding Form contains a typical variable format statement. This format indicates to the program to tabulate to column 16 of the card, skip 15 spaces, and read the next 2 values from the card.

Card #5 contains the number of descriptive cards at the head of the concentration dataset. This card is similar to Card # 3.
Suppose NC = number of descriptive cards.

If $0 \le NC \le 9$, place NC in column 2.

If $10 \le NC \le 99$, place NC in columns 1 and 2.

An example of this card is line 5 on the Fortran Coding Form.

The number '5' indicates there are 5 descriptive cards at the head of the concentration dataset.

Card #6 contains the format for the input image of the concentration (dose) data. This card is similar to Card #4. The format of this card must supply the program with the following two numbers (in this order): an integer value for the treatment number, and a real value for the concentration measurement within that treatment.

Note line 6 on the Fortran Coding Form. This variable format instructs the program to read an integer value from the first 2 columns, tabulate to column 30, and read the real value beginning in that column.

Card # 7 contains the user's choices for 3 parameter values:

- 1. the upper bound on the upward concavity region (UCR),
- 2. the level of significance, or alpha level (ALEVEL),
- the value of a flag indicating the user's desire for simultaneous confidence intervals. (IFLGI)

The user should place UCR in columns 1-8 with a decimal point in column 4. This allows the user to specify a number as large as 999.9999. ALEVEL is placed in columns 11-16 with a decimal point in column 12. Note that this value must be a number between 0 and 1. If the user desires simultaneous confidence intervals, the value of IFLG1 must be 1. Place a 'l' in column 19, if this is the case; otherwise, leave the column blank. Note line 7 on the Fortran Coding Form. The number '15.0' indicates that the upward concavity region lies between 0 and 15.0 (0 and 15.0 are possible concentration values.) The number '0.05' indicates the level of significance, and the 'l' in column 19 tells the program that a simultaneity adjustme is desired, (Thus 0.05 is interpreted as the familywise error rate contains the number of values of k to be considered in the Card #8 analysis, followed by the actual k values. (Recall that the safe concentration is assumed to lie between C_0 and C_k .) The values given on this card must be integers. Suppose NK = number of k's to be considered. If $1 \le NK \le 9$, place NK in column 2 of this card. If NK = 10, place NK in columns 1 and 2. Leave columns 3 and 4 blank. Columns 5-24 contain the actual values of k. Each value is allotted 2 columns;

e.g., columns 5 and 6 contain the first value of k, and

columns 7 and 8 contain the second value, etc.

If the value for k is a treatment number from 1 to 9, place the value in the rightmost column of the field.

Otherwise, the value for k would equal 10 and both columns are used for this two-digit number.

Note: NK $\underline{\text{must}}$ equal the number of actual values placed on this card.

Line 8 on the Fortran Coding Form is a typical example of Card Number 8. Column 2 contains the number '3', indicating that 3 values for k are to be considered. The numbers '3', '4', '5', are these k values.

Card #9

contains the number of L's to be considered followed by the actual values for L. (Recall that L represents the incremental response rate over background, associated with the "safe" concentration.) The values on this last card are as follows: Columns 1 and 2 contain an integer value for the number of L's. Suppose NL = number of L's. If $1 \le NL \le 9$, place NL in column 2. If NL = 10, place NL in columns 1 and 2. Columns 3 and 4 are to be left blank. Beginning with column 5, the remaining columns are used to specify the desired values of L. Each value of L uses 6 columns; e.g., the first value appears in columns 5-10 with a decimal point in column 6. A decimal point must be placed in the second column of a given field. Note that L must be a number from 0 to 1. The user is allowed at most 4 digits to the right of the decimal point. The example of Card Number 9 is found on the Fortran Coding Form, line 9. A '3' appears in column 2

indicating that 3 values of L are to be processed. These three values are '0.01', '0.05', and '0.10'.

PROGRAM LIMITATIONS

Array Size Limitations:

- 1. The number of treatments may not exceed 10 and (the number of treatments) X (the number of replicates per treatment) may not exceed 40. For example, the program could handle as many as 10 treatments with 4 replicates each, or 8 treatments with 5 replicates each.
- The user can supply this program with no more than 10 values for k (input card 8 in Fortran file 5). Similarly, the user is allowed no more than 10 values for L (input card 9 in Fortran file 5).

Output Limitations:

- Only one title card is allowed and the user must restrict his title to the first 72 columns of the title card. (See input card 1. in Fortran file 5.)
- Subroutine WRITE1 prints the data summary found on the first page of output. The number of objects tested and the number of survivals are each printed in format F6.0. Therefore, any quantity greater than 99999. will not print correctly. Similarly, the concentration for each treatment is printed in F8.4 format. Numbers greater than 999.9999 will not print correctly.

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